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ABSTRACT

Staff development in higher education is discussed in these papers in terms of its definitions, scope, and future activities. Most of the papers were originally prepared for the working party on staff development at the Fourth International Conference on Higher Education, University of Lancaster (August 29-September 1, 1978). The first three chapters provide a conceptual basis for an examination of staff development presently and into the 1980's. Areas discussed are these: recent policies and practices: the distinction between "staff development" and "staff training": and fundamental assumptions underlying staff development. Chapters 4 to 9 provide examples of staff development carried out in specific instances, examining such aspects as: analyzing difficulties associated with setting up staff development programs: relating such programs to career stages of teaching staff: the use of data-base staff development: staff development in the Open University: the use of specialists in instructional development in staff development programs: and the use of staff members in developmental programs. Chapters 10 and 11 emphasize personnel. Chapters 12 to 14 discuss determining the effectiveness of developmental programs and activities. The concluding chapter incorporates the views expressed in the conference papers into its own perspective on staff development. Each paper provides references. A list of contributors is also provided. (LC)

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT FOR THE 1980s: INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES

Edited by Dent Rhodes
and Dai Hounsell

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PREFACE

To write about staff development is to try to capture some of the energy and vitality of an emerging, constantly changing, area. In this decade of the 1970s, staff development has become an important aspect of higher education but its definitions, scope and future activities are not always clear or precise.

This book has the advantage of having chapters written by a number of people who bring to it different points of view and different national perspectives. It is an outgrowth of papers presented at the Fourth International Conference on Higher Education held in 1978 at the University of Lancaster. The theme of the conference, "Post-Compulsory Education in the 1980s," was examined by a number of working parties, one of which concentrated on staff development and its implications for the next decade.

The staff development working party was organized jointly by a group of people from two, widely separated institutions: the Institute for Research and Development in Post-Compulsory Education at the University of Lancaster and the Teaching-Learning Center at Illinois State University. The cooperation between the two groups has led to the joint publication of this book. Such a venture between two institutions separated by the Atlantic and drawing on authors from Europe and North America has encountered more than a few difficulties, but special thanks are due to all who contributed their time, patience and industry to make the conference a success and the book possible.

Mention should be made of the support given the publication of the book by the Illinois State University Foundation and the University of Lancaster. Their encouragement and financial backing have helped turn an idea into a reality

Ms. Cheryl Young was responsible for typing the papers for the conference and then the manuscript for the book. We are grateful for her patience, hard work and understanding.

We hope these essays will help others focus on different aspects of staff development as it is presently practiced and will point towards future roles for such practice in the troubled 1980s.

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INTRODUCTION

Given the rapid political, economic, and social changes which are now commonplace in virtually every society, any attempt to anticipate what will occur in higher education in the 1980s may seem more like astrological prediction than a legitimate professional activity. Nevertheless, if we are to plan intelligently for the coming decade, then some efforts to look ahead are needed. We view our effort in preparing this publication not as astrology, but as something more akin to the work of meteorologists. While predicting the weather with a high degree of accuracy is a risky undertaking, forecasts based upon available evidence and extrapolations from past trends are quite useful in planning for the future. Staff development is a relatively new undertaking in higher education, but we believe there is now sufficient knowledge and experience that can be valuable to anyone concerned with forecasting what may occur in the next few years.

The chapters we have included were originally prepared (with two exceptions) as papers for the working party on staff development at the Fourth International Conference on Higher Education. This conference, with the theme "Post-Compulsory Education in the 1980s," was held at the University of Lancaster from August 29 through September 1, 1978. The working party on staff development was one of six working parties at the conference, and some 35 individuals discussed and argued, formally and informally, the present condition and future prospects of staff development in post-compulsory education.

As might be expected, one of the issues at the conference, and one reflected in the papers presented, was the nature of "staff development" itself. The concept does not have a definitive meaning, and the terminology is not standardized. Speaking very generally, "staff development" encompasses all those systematic efforts designed to aid teachers and administrators in improving their ability to function personally and professionally.

"Staff development" is the accepted usage in the United Kingdom; in the United States, "faculty development" is more commonly used instead. In addition, "instructional development," "organizational development," "professional development," and "educational development" are closely related to staff and faculty development. These terms, not always used with the same meaning by different authors, reflect the possible alternative interpretations of "staff development." The specific usage adopted by a particular writer should be clear from the context in which the term is employed.

The papers which comprise the following fifteen chapters do represent different views on the nature of staff development, but there are also a number of common themes. While they might have reservations about specific plans or procedures, the authors consider staff development to be a worthwhile endeavor, although one which is not well-understood in higher education. They recognize that when specialists are not in agreement about what does, could, or should constitute "staff development," then non-specialists may well have doubts about the usefulness of the enterprise. They see common problems: reluctant acceptance by members of teaching and administrative staff, lack of skilled persons prepared to take leadership in staff development activities, serious competition for resources with other institutional agencies. Nevertheless, when personal and financial resources are available and a need for development are recognized by staff, they believe there are a number of approaches to development which can be quite productive. The authors agree that staff development will not be the panacea for the problems of higher education on the 1980s, but it can, in all its forms, contribute to resolutions of those problems. The overall tone is one of cautious optimism, an appreciation of the work accomplished so far and a positive, though guarded, perspective toward the future.

In selecting the papers to be included, we have chosen those which we consider to be representative of the thinking which characterizes staff development internationally. The authors take up a broad spectrum of topics, each of which is pertinent to staff development

programs today, and which we also think will be significant in planning for the future.

The first three chapters provide a conceptual basis for an examination of staff development now and in the 1980s. Without some serious thought about the nature of the activity itself, forecasts of future trends will be haphazard at best. In the first chapter, Jerry Gaff provides an overview of recent policies and practices. Primarily through reference to a recently completed inter-institutional project, he illustrates how staff development has evolved over the last few years and identifies conditions which will promote further progress. Hans Jalling suggests in Chapter 2 that the distinction between "staff development" and "staff training" will be crucial if development activities are to succeed, especially when staff development and governmental policies are closely related. Then Susan Sayer argues in Chapter 3 that fundamental assumptions underlying staff development must be re-examined. Changes in the future should result from conscious choice among alternatives rather than simply from expediency or ideological positions.

Since staff development must not only be considered theoretically, but must also be carried out in specific instances, we have included examples of programs and procedures in the next four chapters. These are not simply accounts of what is done, however; each has a sound theoretical base. Per Lauvås (Chapter 4) analyzes the difficulties associated with setting up a staff development program in an institution where, as is often the case, staff are not altogether sure whether such development is either useful or desirable. How a staff development program can be related to the career stages of teaching staff is Eva Falk-Nilsson's subject in Chapter 5. She reports on a sequence of activities designed to assist a beginning teacher from initial appointment through the first eight years of employment. The use of data-based staff development is discussed by Arthur Rothman in Chapter 6. He shows how methods of staff development in medical education can be related to the manner in which medical education itself is carried on. A similar approach is taken in Chapter 7

by Judith Riley who describes staff development in the Open University. In that setting, staff development through team-work is directly related to the use of course teams in designing instruction.

If staff development programs are to be successful in the 1980s, there is little doubt that competent personnel will be required. According to George Geis (Chapter 8), specialists in instructional development can contribute to the larger concerns of staff development by judicious use of their expertise. Not only are instructional development specialists useful, their presence may indeed be vital if staff development is to meet personal and institutional needs. From a different orientation, John Sharpham points out in Chapter 9 that staff members themselves can provide a very useful dimension to development activities when they become an active part of a staff development unit. Non-experts in staff development do have skill and commitment to offer which can be beneficial to their colleagues.

Staff development is often conceived of as applying only to teaching staff, but both Harriet Greenaway and Robert Scott emphasize in Chapters 10 and 11 that it can be equally important for administrative personnel as well. Though administrative organization, function, and style may vary from country to country and institution to institution, there is a constant need for professional growth by administrators, especially those in "middle management" positions. If administrators are to maintain their ability to deal with the problems they now have, to say nothing of those which can be anticipated, then administrative development must receive more attention than is now the case.

Among the perennial issues in staff development are those involved in determining the effectiveness of development activities and programs, and we have included three papers which address this problem. Robin Buchan (Chapter 12) comments upon the ways in which teaching faculty may respond to staff development practices commonly found in community colleges. The responses are not uniformly favorable, and he maintains that changes are in order if staff development is to be effective in

the community college. In Chapter 13, which he prepared for this publication, John Cowan gives a participant's reaction to various kinds of staff development procedures. He strongly recommends that individualization become as prominent a feature of staff development programs as development specialists often argue it should be in the participant's own teaching. Formal evaluation plans also have a role in assessing the effectiveness of staff development projects. Alternative methods of evaluation are presented in Chapter 14 by Dent Rhodes, and he outlines the requirements that systematic evaluation must fulfill.

In the concluding chapter, Charles Pascal, who chaired the staff development working party at the Lancaster conference, incorporates the views expressed in the conference papers into his own perspective on staff development. He believes that the problems higher education will be facing in the 1980s can be resolved with the aid of sound educational development. A prerequisite to such aid, however, is a reassessment of current policies and practices, for over-confidence is an invitation to disaster.

Though we believe that the papers we have selected give an international perspective on staff development, it is quite evident that the perspective is not a global one. Staff development efforts in Asia, Africa, South America, and Australia are obviously not represented. This situation underscores the fact that at present there is no common network which links together persons throughout the world who have common interests in staff development. Though individuals from various institutions and agencies are in communication with one another, these communications are often informal and sporadic. Where networks do exist, they are limited to persons within national boundaries or among a few nations at best.

Establishing a global network of staff development personnel and information is an important venture that needs to be pursued in the 1980s. Perhaps the international perspectives presented here will be a step in that direction.

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT: CURRENT VALUES & FUTURE NEEDS

Jerry G. Gaff

At a recent meeting of faculty members and administrators from several universities, staff development was the central point of discussion, in particular the improvement of teaching. The group voiced a number of plaints about the quality of teaching and pessimism that anything could be done to improve it: "Universities emphasize research, not teaching;" "Faculty don't talk about their teaching--it's a private act;" "Faculty are isolated from their colleagues in other departments;" and "Graduate programs train students for research rather than for teaching." What makes this experience significant is that the meeting took place in Brazil. Academics in the United States are skeptical that improvements within the current system are possible, even though many harbor secret hopes that they will be proven wrong. But this experience, subsequent conversations with educational leaders from other countries, and the interest in staff development at the International Conference on Higher Education at Lancaster suggest that the concern for staff development is worldwide.

This paper will 1) review briefly the progress that has been made in staff--specifically faculty--development in the United States, 2) discuss its value in light of the early experience, and 3) suggest a few thoughts about the future of this endeavor. At the outset it should be acknowledged that one cannot deal fully with these topics in a single paper. In that space one can state but not explain, claim but not document.

Faculty development is a rallying cry that was sounded with increasing intensity throughout the United States during the 1970s. Faced with prospects of a declining growth rate, a "tenured in" faculty, and increasingly

rigid institutions, educators saw the need to find new ways to keep faculty members growing and developing throughout their careers, which were expected to be increasingly confined to a single institution. It became apparent that traditional notions of professional development as up-dating and up-grading knowledge in one's specialization would be insufficient for this task, and alternative approaches were encouraged, often aided by grants from private foundations and government agencies. New efforts were initiated to serve such diverse purposes as to improve teaching, revise courses, enhance life and career planning, reform academic practices, and renew whole institutions. Far from being a specific concept, a single approach, or a new orthodoxy, faculty development functioned somewhat like that old slogan, "Don't just stand there, do something." This may explain why there is little consensus about what faculty development is and why the field is characterized by several different schools of thought. Given this state of affairs, we may expect that different people will draw different lessons about its value and see different futures for it.

We should keep in mind that faculty development as other than advanced work in one's subject matter is a very recent phenomenon. Virtually unheard of until the early 1970s, a great deal of progress has been made in a very short period of time. Specifically:

a. A large number of colleges and universities have established new programs.
b. Many assumptions, concepts, and model programs embracing new versions of faculty development have been devised, tested, and shown to be workable.
c. Major funding programs have been initiated by private foundations and federal agencies to support these approaches.
d. Many materials, activities, and exercises have been devised for use with college faculty.
e. The professional literature on faculty development has been extensive, of rather high quality, and is still expanding.
f. Conferences on various aspects of faculty development and to train persons to provide

leadership for such efforts have been held and continue to draw well.

g. A new group of professional academics has emerged to staff programs for faculty, instructional, and organizational development.

One of the most important lessons derived from this spate of activity is that the basic assumptions and new approaches to faculty development have, on the whole, been validated. This is not meant as a blanket endorsement of everything that has occurred in the name of faculty development nor a Pollyannaish view of several serious problems, but it does mean that the basic ideas inherent in the expanded concept of faculty development as expounded in the basic texts are sound (The Group for Human Development, 1974; Bergquist and Phillips, 1975, 1977; Gaff, 1975; Lindquist, 1978).

Although much has been accomplished and the basic ideas are sound, we must keep in mind that most new programs are fragile creatures. Most have small staffs, enjoy little institutional commitment, have modest budgets, and involve only a limited number of faculty members. Even successful programs are more like the tiny seedling than the mighty oak, and like most innovative programs (especially during times of fiscal stringency) they need to be protected until they are strong enough to fend for themselves. It would take very little in the way of political or budgetary attacks to erase most of the progress that has been made during this whole decade.

The need for teaching improvement--only one aspect of faculty development but a major concern for many--still exists; the considerable progress that has been made has in no way satiated the need. Evidence can be seen everywhere. On the questionnaire survey we conducted early in our Project, fully 40 percent of the faculty said *never* during their entire career had *anyone* talked with them in detail about their teaching; only one in four said this happened more than twice. Or consider the professor who confessed, "I've been teaching introductory chemistry for 17 years, and I need to be renewed;" he expressed a yearning felt by many of his more reticent colleagues. Or again note our survey in which 40 percent of the faculty agreed with the statement, "Knowledge in my field is expanding so fast that I have fallen seriously behind."

Despite the progress that has been made, there are still large numbers of faculty members, even on campuses that have initiated new programs, who have not yet been touched and could benefit from greater attention to their teaching, professional lives, and subject matter.

With this brief review of the state of the art, we are ready to address the issue of the value or worth of these efforts. The question of value is deceptively simple. What values? Value to whom? Accordingly, the paper will comment separately about the worth to faculty members, to administrators, to institutions, and to students. These comments are derived largely from the experience gained from the three-year Project on Institutional Renewal through the Improvement of Teaching which is sponsored by the Society for Values in Higher Education and supported by a grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education. The Project is comprised of 16 diverse colleges and universities in the Southeast and Midwest which are establishing institution-wide teaching improvement programs. Each school applied to participate in this enterprise and appointed a "team" of five faculty members (to ensure faculty ownership of the endeavor), an administrator (to provide administrative support), and a student (to remind everyone that teaching is an instrumental activity directed toward better education for students). The teams prepared a specific plan for improvement at their institutions, submitted it to a critique by the Project's Advisory Committee, increased the number of team members, and implemented the plan. As was expected, a variety of approaches have been tried and are now being implemented; most are in the process of becoming institutionalized. A rather extensive research and evaluation effort has been carried on in relation to the establishment of these teaching improvement programs. We decided to mount a serious research and evaluation effort for several reasons: to gather information that might be useful to program planners in improving their services, to explore the benefits that may be derived from the programs, and to contribute to the knowledge about professional development so the practice can be placed on a more solid foundation. A mid-course assessment was conducted at the institutions in our Project last spring to determine the experiences, perceptions, and benefits to faculty participants in program activities, to administrators, and to team members.

As part of that assessment, personal interviews lasting about one hour each were conducted with 91 faculty members who participated in various teaching improvement activities at different institutions. Eighty percent were in the arts and sciences, the largest portion (about one-third) in the humanities. A configuration of responses leads to the conclusion that these participants derived considerable value from their involvement. In particular:

a. Participation in teaching improvement activities was a new experience for two-thirds of the faculty.
b. Several expressed reservations before participating including the threat of self-exposure, possible waste of time, suspicion of the motives of the organizers, and fear of pressure toward conformity.
c. After participation three-fourths rated the activities as moderately good to very good.
d. Over three-fourths said they enjoyed the activities.
e. More than four out of five said they "gained much of value" from their experience.
f. Over half said their attitudes toward teaching improvement activities became more favorable; over another third said their initial attitudes were positive and remained so.
g. Four out of five said they would recommend those kinds of activities to a friend or colleague.
h. Nearly half reported that they actually tried some new approach in their teaching; a wide variety of specific efforts to improve teaching was mentioned.

This adds up to a favorable evaluation of the worth of teaching improvement by the faculty members who themselves participated in these activities.

But what are the kinds of benefits faculty derive from those teaching improvement activities? "To take a fresh look or perspective at the way I taught courses," and "I believe I have turned around the attitudes of (my) students toward chemistry." An opportunity to meet interesting new colleagues, share views and experiences with people from other departments, and other inter-personal benefits were reported by 32 percent. And assistance with particular teaching techniques or concrete aids were cited by 29 percent. All of these are valuable benefits, but the

thread that runs through these responses is the feeling of personal enrichment or renewal. Whether through a rededication to the vocation of teaching, the discovery of colleagues working toward the same end, assistance with an instructional problem, or some other experience, faculty members seem to be deriving a kind of personal revitalization that is related to their teaching roles. This point should not be over-emphasized. These benefits are not derived by everyone, and they seldom have the intensity of a religious conversion. But they are renewing, and it is hard to see how they could have occurred without faculty development.

The results of this explanatory study have been validated and extended by means of a final evaluation involving a larger sample of participants as well as non-participants. These findings will be incorporated in the final report currently being readied.

Administrators derive values from faculty development as well, even though those are not usually explicit. Top ranking administrators often relate to the faculty members in distant, impersonal, and bureaucratic ways because of the large size of institutions, demands for accountability, and time pressures. But by stimulating, supporting, or advancing faculty development efforts, administrators can affirm their concern for the welfare of individual faculty members. As administrators increasingly have been called upon to play roles of managing, planning, budgeting, evaluating, and governing, they have tended to abandon their role of providing educational leadership. But by supporting a teaching improvement program, they can regain an active role as an educational leader. Faculty development offers administrators something they most need--an opportunity to express both symbolically and substantively their concern for the welfare of faculty members and for the quality of teaching and learning.

Administrators also have found that faculty development often leads to opportunities for their own professional development. In one of our institutions the newly established Center for Instructional Development determined that department chairpersons were the front line administrators with responsibility for the quality of instruction. Early activities focused on these key persons and led to

an on-going program to help department chairpersons evaluate faculty, encourage development of faculty, and learn skills to improve various aspects of their jobs. At another institution the faculty development effort was paralleled by a series of management seminars for administrators throughout the university. These opportunities, when they have evolved, have generated important values for administrators at various levels.

Faculty development can lead to institutional renewal. We should remember that one of the major reasons faculty development gained such prominence is that it promised a mechanism by which to keep institutions vital. The various programs devised by the institutions that are part of our Project have tried, as the name implies, to renew institutions through the improvement of teaching. The mid-course assessment interviews with faculty participants, presidents, vice presidents, deans, department chairpersons, and team members, explored the impact of the programs on institutions. Also, case studies being prepared by each school provide evidence about the worth of faculty development to institutions. From these several sources, the following benefits can be observed:

a. A teaching improvement program can recall the basic institutional mission and help a school reorient its policies and procedures so as to emphasize the centrality of teaching and learning.
b. It can contribute to a sense of community by bringing together a group of concerned faculty, students, and administrators around common educational experiences.
c. By bringing together individuals from all parts of the institution, it can foster a broader perspective and create more positive feelings about the school as a whole.
d. Leaders must be cultivated, and those involved in establishing or enhancing faculty development efforts are able to acquire leadership experience that may be useful in other endeavors.
e. A number of spin-off benefits in terms of policies and procedures may emanate from faculty development. For instance, improved faculty

evaluation procedures, a peer advising system, the creation of an academic senate, and greater attention to adult students and community relations are a few of the very important side benefits reported at some of our institutions.

f. A climate more supportive of excellence in teaching is the single most important accomplishment reported by all groups in our mid-course assessment.

Perhaps the most important quality running through these various items is institutional vitality or renewal. Although the specifics vary from school to school to school, it is apparent that faculty development has released energies that in one way or another serve to make the institution more dynamic. As one president put it when asked if the effort had revitalized his institution, "Revitalized--no. But more vital. . .It was a lever, not a religious experience." Again, it must be pointed out that not all schools are able to report a renewing influence, and the vital portions of several extend only to a small portion of the whole institution. But it is important to know that faculty development can facilitate the renewal of an institution.

The worth of faculty development to students is more problematic. Some individuals take the position that faculty development might be a valuable undertaking even if it yields no benefits for students; after all, many worthwhile activities including certain personal practices, some kinds of research, and travel support can be justified even if they have little direct impact on students. From my point of view, however, it is important that the benefits to faculty members, administrators, and institutions be translated as much as possible into improved education for students. To some, this means evaluating the value of teaching improvement activities by examining changes in the learning of students. Not only does this task pose severe methodological and technical research problems, but it ignores the vast amount of research that demonstrates, in the words of one scholar, "Learning takes place under almost any conditions imposed upon the learner --and with or without good instruction." But translating faculty development into improved education for students might mean a variety of other things that are measureable and attributable to program activities, such as more

productive relationships with teachers or peers, better educational environments, or more enjoyable learning experiences.

Although the value of teaching improvement to students is an important issue, we have not been able to study it in our Project as systematically as we would have liked. We have, unlike most similar projects, actively involved students in our work as members of the teams. Perhaps that is one reason why approximately one-third of the institutions decided not to create programs that help faculty directly. Several teams, in the words of one, "felt that programs which included actual teaching rather than a discussion of teaching might meet with success, particularly if the programs offered new and interesting experiences for both students and faculty." Thus, one school created a freshman year program that features closer student-faculty relationships and interdisciplinary seminars on topics of social and personal significance; another established an alternative college that offers individualized curricular contracts and serves the special interests of adult learners; a third fashioned a values seminar that has since been incorporated into the general education requirements; a fourth sought to foster greater integration in the core curriculum, and a fifth established an alternative to the current core requirements. In each of these cases faculty became more self-conscious of their teaching, developed different instructional styles, and related to students and colleagues in new ways, and students were given additional learning options. In addition, closer student-faculty relationships have been fostered through the workshops, retreats, and other program activities as well as by having students involved in planning and implementing faculty development programs. And the increased concern for and attention to teaching by their instructors is an important benefit for students. Although more can and should be done to ensure that students derive benefits from it, faculty development, at least in some forms, has value in terms of the quality of education for students.

One may wonder how typical are the experiences of the institutions in this Project; can these results be

generalized? The 16 schools represent a very broad range of four-year colleges and universities, and most had little experience with faculty development prior to this venture. Further, they collectively incorporated most of the approaches that are characteristic of faculty development as it has taken shape around the country. In short, there is no reason to think that these results cannot be obtained in other institutions.

What about the future? Faculty development is not a "quick fix." It is not an innoculation given to a professor to prevent obsolescence or to ensure eternal youth. Knowledge continues to expand, commitments must be reconsidered periodically, challenges are raised, students change from generation to generation, institutional contexts are altered, and faculty members must adapt. Growing, developing, and working productively are continuous challenges. At its best, faculty development is a continuous process of attending to the professional and human needs of men and women on the faculty and the rest of the staff and doing whatever is necessary to make work more productive, relationships more fulfilling, and life more rewarding.

It should be kept in mind that faculty development was conceived as a response to long term problems facing higher education, namely to facilitate the growth of faculty throughout their carreers and to keep institutions vital during a projected period of retrenchment or stability. These tasks can be accomplished only over a time span of several decades. While it has been demonstrated that for a short term faculty development can realize many values, there has not been sufficient time to demonstrate its value in achieving these long term goals. This is a major task for the future.

This means that staff development must become institutionalized. Although many programs have been established during the past few years, most have small staffs, operate on the periphery of the institution, have modest budgets, involve few faculty members, and face uncertain futures. Perhaps the most important need in the coming years is for these programs to become firmly enmeshed in the lives of their institutions.

There are four keys to institutionalizing faculty development programs. The first is faculty ownership. Faculty members need to feel that the program exists for them, that they can request and receive useful services, and that faculty interests are well represented. Administrative support is a second crucial factor. Any program institution-wide requires the active and informed support of administrators, including the sensitivities and skills necessary for them to promote the growth of the faculty. Third is student involvement. Since the ultimate rationale for faculty development is that students will enjoy better instruction as a result of the professional development of their teachers, ways must be found for students to express their views and experiences for the benefits of their professors. Institutional commitment is a final key factor. Allocation of funds and time, provision of supportive structures, and conveyance of legitimate authority on the enterprise are major ways such a commitment may be expressed.

In summary, we should keep in mind that faculty development is a recent phenomenon which embraces several schools of thought. Although much progress has been made, many needs remain, and even successful programs are vulnerable. Evidence is beginning to accumulate that allows us to judge its worth. This evidence supports the conclusion that faculty development, at least over the short term, yields significant values to faculty members, administrators, institutions, and students. In order to be a positive force for renewal over the long term, existing programs must become institutionalized. This can be accomplished by the combination of faculty ownership, administrative support, student involvement, and institutional commitment. Only then will faculty development be able to achieve the purposes for which it was originally devised.

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EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Hans Jalling

INTRODUCTION

For the purpose of this paper the term *staff training* is used to signify activities on the part of educational authorities (national, regional, local, university) to implement educational policy as defined by the authority in question. While the objectives thus are fixed by the organization sponsoring the training programme, methods of training may, of course, vary (job rotation, on-the-job training, courses workshops, etc.).

It is evident that the common use of "staff training" to denote activities that derive from the views on one person or a small group of persons (e.g., "specialists in education") but that do not have the full support of the organization does not meet this criterion of "staff training." It is also evident that this criterion presupposes a known policy on the part of the organization, and that adherence to this known policy is easily discernible. As will be demonstrated with examples from the Swedish scene, another prerequisite of a staff training programme is that it must be congruent with other signals of the organization, particularly the reward system. Activities that are only there to appease public opinion and thus only used as fronts do not express the true opinions of the governing bodies of the organization.

Staff development will be used to signify activities aiming at increasing the readiness to accept and promote innovation. The direction of such innovation is not bound by official or semi-official interpretations of "policies," and thus may be contrary to current ideas within the system. Innovation is a relative term; it does not necessarily mean "new" in the absolute sense of the word but "new" to a particular organization. It does not only refer to methods of presentation or organization but includes, for example, the acceptance of new disciplines, course contents and research policies.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND STAFF TRAINING

Staff training is a way to elucidate policy, i.e., it should fortify other signals of the governing system. It is very rarely used to spread information on matters of high priority, as training may be accepted or rejected (and you are not allowed to reject important instructions from your governing system). It might even be argued that the choice of staff training instead of other instruments at the disposal of the system, e.g., budget control or promotion policy, is a sign of moderate interest in the issue from the part of the governing bodies. This would explain the current efforts to improve university teaching through staff training: it would be "nice" if teaching were more "efficient;" it is not, however, one of the priority questions.

The role of the staff trainer is a fairly comfortable one. The question of loyalties--which may become very embarrassing in staff development work--is quite clear: he is there to implement the policy of the system and thus has to identify himself with this policy. It is obvious that he sometimes will have to confront the system with uncomfortable truths, e.g., that the system itself has not made up its mind on how to deal with a certain issue, but once a policy is formulated he knows what to do.

The first brief to the Staff Training Unit of the National Board included the task of making Swedish academics more cost conscious. An analysis of the situation--in the early 1970s--showed, however, that cost consciousness was negatively rewarded. If a department could save money, it would invariably result in a smaller allocation of funds the next year. Hence, rationalization was indeed against the interests of departments. When comparing the effects of signals sent via the budget control system and via the staff training programme, there can be little doubt about what signals would be received and understood by the academics. Similarly, although lip service was being paid to the importance of good teaching, promotion policies did not reward the person who took an active interest in teaching.

Under these circumstances staff *training* is not possible.

The ability to analyze the system at large, and, when need be, discourage the authorities from wasting public money on staff training with no chances of success, clearly should be within the competence of a staff training unit.

The way the problem was solved in Sweden may give some perspective on staff training. Cost consciousness has been increased through the introduction of a new budget system which aims at rewarding rather than punishing the department that can economize. The signals of the system are clear and need no elucidation--hence, very little staff training has been needed in this particular field. When it comes to rewarding the interested teacher, the statutes for promotion have been changed and prescribe more note to be taken of the candidates' teaching records; in other words, the signals of the system now are consistent. In comparison with other signals floating about within the system, these signals are, however, fairly weak and need to be supported by further staff training to prove the intentions to the sceptic. Hence, courses on alternative teaching methods are still presented.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Staff development is an invitation to the members of the system to participate in the formulation of policies. It might even be argued that one of the reasons for putting money into staff development is an inability to formulate a clear policy from the part of the governing bodies. In contrast to staff training which in most cases aims at making people conform, staff development places great confidence in the individuals. If one subscribes to the commonly held notion that institutions of higher learning are among the most important development forces of a country, it seems reasonable to suggest that staff development rather than staff training would be a good way of utilizing the potential of faculty.

Yet both educational authorities and faculty have been hesitant. The reason for this hesitation may be

explained on grounds of mutual distrust: the loyalty of faculty is constantly questioned in administrative quarters and examples of abuse of "academic freedom" freely quoted, while faculty resist the drive for "accountability" and use their creativity to counter administrative measures designed to increase accountability in education.

The conflict of interest seems to be a real one. Traditionally, university structure favours individual judgment while administration, in their role as the representatives of the taxpayer, regard social legislation as a natural line of action. One might add that institutions of higher learning seem to be denied the luxury of less competitiveness that is an important development in modern society, and that increased demands on brilliance are, in fact, placed on university staff; through their discoveries and inventions we shall be able to retain our standard of living in spite of having to share a larger portion of our resources with other people. While universities should continue to produce results on a competitive basis, they should also conform with the new rules of society.

One of the problems that is--or should be--of considerable concern to established staff development units is that of loyalty. If there is a real conflict of interest between faculty and the taxpayer, to whom does the staff developer owe allegiance? To the taxpayer because he pays the salary or to the faculty because they represent the sphere of activity the staff developer has been entrusted to support (on behalf of the taxpayer, though)?

The use of the term staff development here makes references to existing educational policy futile. The objective of staff development is change and innovation in areas where more than one possibility seems reasonable and therefore should be explored.

The question has obvious bearing on organizational patterns: should a staff development unit be a part of the administration--Dean's Office, Vice-chancellor's Office, Minister of Higher Education's Office, etc.--or part of faculty structure--part of a department or a

school, a research institute of its own, etc.? Incidentally, this question is of little concern to the staff *trainer*: he is--or should be--part of the administration. This does not necessarily mean that he should not be doing research work but it shows where his loyalties should be.

An additional difficulty is the fact that the notion of staff development very rarely seems to be accepted as such--surely, staff development is only a smarter way of presenting unsavoury messages in a more palatable way. (Perhaps it is. . .). Particularly in situations of distrust, course programmes will be scrutinized for the hidden curriculum and evidence of the ongoing conspiracy to change the world in a certain direction. Claimed neutrality will not be believed.

It is also evident that the clients participating in staff development activities will demand further support for ideas they may have picked up during these activities. If a staff development unit has had, for example, a course on new forms of examinations, and a participant asks for moral or other support to introduce these ideas within his own department, what should the reactions of the staff development unit be? A refusal to support a pilot scheme will probably be seen as a betrayal--why try to interest me in something you are not prepared to support--while support given will be interpreted as an elucidation of the suspected conspiracy from those who have other views on examinations.

Because of the inertia of organizations, staff development programmes need to pick up and stimulate discussions on ideas that are not yet part of the approved educational policy. Thus, it seems reasonable that one might--as part of one's educational policy--decide to have a staff development programme; it is not however reasonable to stipulate further relations between educational policy and staff development.

This may lead to the conclusion that the best staff developer is the staff *trainer* who has not (yet) managed to get the support of his organization and thus is likely to present ideas contrary to current thought.

Another criterion of the competent staff developer might therefore be added: as his actions are likely to legitimize the testing of new approaches--approaches that you may or may not find to your liking but you are nevertheless ready to give a fair hearing--he must enjoy the respect of administration as well as faculty.

In Sweden staff development is seen as one of the instruments available to the authorities when reviewing educational policy. It is a listening device--not a preaching one. Basic assumptions are that faculty and administration are competent and loyal, and thus will use, in a sensible way, whatever funds are given for development. Because of real conflicts of interest, however, consensus cannot always be expected which gives the staff developer the position of moderator. The need for this position is recognized by both parties.

The recognition does not, of course, give the staff developer sufficient guidance on how staff development really can enhance innovation in universities. The "academic" solution to this problem seems to be to engage the staff developer in research. Yet, this may not be a good idea; the research task is so enormous that it is more than likely that the research efforts will divert the staff developer's attention from the potential of other people's ideas to his own favourite topics, and after all, the function of the staff developer is not necessarily to be brilliant himself but to recognize brilliance when encountered.

After some years when the National Board tried to maintain "balance"--between support to various schools of ideas, between faculty and administration, between research and teaching, etc.--it has now entered "the pragmatic state." If someone can convince the Board that he or she has a reasonably original idea, we would suggest that this idea is put forward for international scrutiny at our expense--which may be a very costly enterprise, as in the case of the latest "creative teaching" course. If both the proposer and the Board are still convinced after this, it is probably acceptable to the system and we can proceed to look for new

ideas. . . . It is very much an example of the "garbage can model," but what are the alternatives?

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

In most countries universities seem to be moving towards a stage where more and more people become involved in the process of decision-making ("democratization"). As this necessarily means increased communication between different ideas and interests, the role of the staff developer will become even more indistinct, particularly as no one person, or group of persons, can claim a monopoly of staff development measures--indeed, one would hope that every meeting in university circles would contribute to development of the staff involved, irrespective of the theme of the meeting.

However, it also stands to reason to suggest that the provision of "unusual" or "unexpected" experience could play an important part in staff development. Most universities will have to meet the challenges of the 1980s with their present staff; the former practice of adding new competence through the recruitment of new staff will no longer be a feasible method of increasing the strength of a particular university. Thus, new fields of competence must be created *within* the university itself.

Traditionally, faculty will point to research as the prime source of innovation. By and large this is, of course, a reasonable view. However, the odds are that this will not be enough: the general public is asking for more than a continued development along present lines--the "creative" powers of the universities will have to be vitalized. One of the most important instruments to achieve is--or should be--staff development.

From the point of view of the staff developer this means a change of policies in many ways. He can no longer limit his interest to teaching and student learning; instead, he must take an interest not only in what traditionally are academic affairs (including research)

but also in the discussion on the role of universities and colleges in society. He should no longer spend a lot of time jealously defending his preserve; on the contrary, whenever people seem interested to take over a certain activity, he should gladly hand it over and proceed to new hunting grounds.

The hopes to create a research-based academic discipline of "staff development"--in most cases only meaning teaching and learning--will be frustrated. It is true that some colleagues will continue to do research on student learning, and perhaps also on faculty learning, but this will not be the essence of staff development. The staff developer will be moving in the realms of the unknown and unexpected, asking colleagues to join him for excursions that may or may not turn out to be fruitful. He will take a lot of risks and probably more often than not find that his ventures ended in disappointment.

The authorities will probably do their best to "reduce" him to a staff trainer. Shortage of money will lessen the readiness to take risks, and our orderly society likes to think that change can--and indeed should--be planned. Whenever academics do not conform there will be a cry for more staff training from the governing bodies, and the most pressing problem in staff development will be keeping the freedom to work in the field of *development*.

DIRECTIONS IN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Susan Sayer

INTRODUCTION

I was asked in this case not to analyse, describe or report on existing development but to write a "think piece" about the future. This is a "think" piece to be sure because, although I take a systematic approach to the programme I organise for staff in my university, I have as yet no systematic proposals in examining fundamentals and seeking a long view ahead. In fact, will there be a systematic future? Would it be beneficial to have one? I am doubtful in both cases and have only some suggestions based on experience to date.

I should offer an apology for any apparent confusion between the term "professional development" which I have used, and "staff development." I have explained elsewhere why I prefer, and have tried to adopt, the term professional development and will not trouble to repeat it here. I may, in fact, be seen to slide back and forth between these terms since it is difficult to avoid the language in common use. Another weakness is that my central arguments reflect trends and pressures most evident in the United Kingdom and there may be different emphases and areas of focus in other countries. But I believe there should still be sufficient relevancy to colleagues abroad to justify making the points which follow.

About the future: no one, of course, can predict--one can only respond to existing realities and speculate about directions. This is rendered even more difficult by my consistent observation that professional development cannot and should not become a "discipline" because there is no solid body of knowledge which will produce specific desired results when carefully applied in the complex and ever-robust area of education. McKeachie (1974) and others have made this abundantly clear in connection with concepts of learning; it can be no less true in considering aspects

of staff roles and responsibilities--of which learning, both by students and staff--is a major one. The content and success of professional development in the future will vary with the aims, perceptions and values not only of nations, but also of institutions, departments and individuals who are moved to become involved as either organisers or participants in this still nebulous but worthy experiment. I have not doubt that it should continue, but how will it develop? How many directions will there be? Should there be? In the end it boils down to two simple questions: what do we hope to achieve? and "how many ways can you skin a cat?"

THE CONCEPT OF IMPROVING UNIVERSITY TEACHING

It is usual to start by documenting the point we have reached before attempting to look ahead. This has been done in many other recent publications; thus, I propose to omit the history of interest in improving university teaching and move directly to its current status.

Within the past year, evidence of this interest continued unabated (NEXUS, recent issues). Ross (1978) took a full page in the *Times Higher Education Supplement* to discuss the art of lecturing and to cite his perception that better lecturing technique is the key to improving university teaching. The massive international conference "Improving University Teaching" (1978) held its fourth annual meeting in Aachen while the fifth is scheduled for London. There was the third of a series of tri-national courses for university teachers from Holland, Sweden and Britain (1978) and several bi-national efforts are now underway. A European Workshop on Staff Development (1978) held in Kent immediately booked itself for a return engagement in Hamburg. Various national conferences and meetings in the United Kingdom examined approaches to staff training and development and future meetings are in plan. These are only a small portion of what was on offer.

At the above and other gatherings certain key questions continued to arise which, as experience and the literature testify, have been with us since the beginning: (1) By what methods of training can we successfully improve university teaching? (2) How can we convince university staff that they need to improve their

teaching and that they should enter into and value this exercise? (3) How can we determine that there is some subsequent change in behaviour and improvement in teaching in response to what we offer?

Although the approaches and surrounding discussions become increasingly sophisticated, the years are passing and there appear to be as few answers now to such basic questions as when it all began. Is it that we just have not found the answers yet, or is it time to ask whether the questions themselves may be faulty? Whether there may be some undefended assumptions behind them which themselves could bear questioning? Let us first identify the underlying assumptions:

1. (a) that *we can* by deliberate and concerted effort improve university teaching;
   (b) that *we should* improve university teaching;
   (c) that *methods of training can* improve university teaching;

2. (a) that *university staff can* be convinced that they need to improve their teaching;
   (b) that *university staff should* enter into and value what we offer;

3. (a) that *we can and should* subsequently determine what happens in response to what we offer.

One hesitates to ask it, but what if any or all of these assumptions were wrong? I believe it would be a useful exercise to challenge them; I propose to argue the case that each of these assumptions is wrong.

1(a) *assumption: that we can by deliberate and concerted effort improve university teaching.*

Our recent failure in the United Kingdom to agree on systems of assessing university teaching reflected our inability to arrive at a common specification of the significant features of good teaching and to agree on the appropriate relative weightings to be given to those features which could be commonly identified (Lipson, 1974). This was not mere academic sophistry; it was in large

part honest recognition of a problem of fundamental importance (Sayer and Harding, 1975). We know that those superficial aspects of "good teaching" on which we can focus, while desirable in themselves, pale into insignificance in face of other variables which are difficult and potentially impossible to measure (Eraut, *et al.*, 1975). We know that the complex total "act" (and "art") of teaching cannot be adequately analysed and codified (Kitwood, 1976). The evidence suggests that we can, by deliberate and concerted effort, improve some superficial aspects of teaching performance (Perrott, *et al.*, 1975). There is no evidence that we can, by deliberate and concerted effort, significantly improve the complex total act of teaching, and more importantly its impact on students (Kitwood, 1976; Palmer and White, 1974).

1(b) *assumption: that we should improve university teaching.*

Clearly this would not be a matter of so much concern without an earlier assumption that better teaching will result in better learning. The research suggests if anything that apart from special laboratory conditions there is no necessary or reliable connection between the act of teaching and the outcome of learning (McKeachie, 1974; Smith, 1971). It is fair to ask if our efforts and interests here are misdirected--whether we should be concentrating instead on the needs and requirements of improving university *learning?* This might indeed direct our interest back to certain aspects of the teacher's role and performance, but it might in fact be different aspects, or a different route to a different end.

1(c) *assumption: that methods of training can improve university teaching.*

What makes a good teacher? Countless operational, intellectual, social, sexual, political, personal and contextual characteristics have been identified in the myriad of research surveys designed to identify the features of good teaching as seen by the

"consumers" of teaching and by colleagues (Hildebrand, 1973; Hore, 1973). The potential list is endless. What shall we "train?" What among the above *can* we train?

Following an extensive research survey, Sheffield (1974) concluded that university teachers identified as "best" shared reliably only such common characteristics as love of teaching and dedicated preparation for teaching. As is obvious we cannot train "dedication" or "love." What then? Shall we be content to place our own priorities on identifying and espousing some fairly common but largely superficial characteristics of good teaching performance, or is it more important in the long run that we struggle to make teaching *attractive*, to make it *cared* about, and to encourage teachers to invest emotionally by struggling to establish their own priorities in this important role and consciously become self-assessing, self-monitoring individuals? Does anyone doubt that a *caring* teacher will, for example, struggle to make himself heard in the classroom and will ask for or welcome help in doing so if he really needs it? Or that he will seek to reform his curriculum if the students are having difficulty in comprehending his subject?

2(a) *assumption: that university staff can be convinced that they need to improve their teaching.*

There seems very little chance that they will be convinced by vested interests in training and development; as developers, our "need" for them could easily be deemed greater than their need for us. What would convince them? If it could be proved that their students would fare better as a result there is little doubt that this would weigh heavily with most teachers. But there is no evidence for this--on the contrary, the research suggests that the validity and reliability of assessments of students in universities remain amazingly low (Bligh, *et al.*, 1975) while experience reminds us that both systems of grading and the adaptability of students are such that few university teachers

find overall results obtained by their students differing significantly from the results obtained by anyone else's.

Student results or no, if institutions valued "good teaching" and were seen to reward it, this would undoubtedly affect the interests and aspirations of many who wish to contribute to the common concept of good and to be appreciated for playing their part. Although universities have recently tried to state their belief in the importance of university teaching, we are all aware that many staff remain unconvinced in practice and feel that institutional and self-enhancement still lie primarily in the area of research publication and occasionally in some aspects of administration. The major importance, if any, of so-called training courses and development programmes for university teachers may lie not in their actual content or approach but rather in the fact that their very existence suggests that the institution has had enough interest to invest resources in this area. Unfortunately in most cases the amount of this investigation remains very small (Matheson, forthcoming) and in any case without a correspondingly clear demonstration of willingness to both select and promote staff on the basis of at least an equal interest in their dedication to teaching, it remains possible that the large majority of university staff cannot be convinced that it is important to do more than adequately meet their minimum daily teaching requirements.

2(b) *assumption: that university staff should enter into and value what we offer.*

As is implied above, we are full of hopes, but as experience or any perusal of the literature will show, we are not yet certain what, if anything, will make a significant difference for either university teachers or their students. Similarly, and with justice, the majority of staff are not yet convinced that what we offer will be of value to themselves, their students or their institutions (Boyle and Georgiades, 1977). Thus our efforts remain an "act of faith." In my view, this is not a deficit but

a major virtue, and something that we should keep unashamedly in mind in any serious effort to articulate philosophy or devise strategy. But who will dare to use the imperative "should?" *Who* will be willing to promise *what* necessary results to justify its use?

3(a) *assumption: that we can and should subsequently determine what happens in response to what we offer.*

Meaningful follow-up surveys would be difficult to devise, carry out and interpret. This does not prevent them from being potentially valuable; however, we remain in a situation where there is no ready agreement on objectives in professional development and thus no consensus on what aspects of subsequent behaviour could be usefully measured (Sayer and Harding, 1975; Sayer, 1977). This is in any case an academic question for many professional development organisers who work on their own as in Britain and have neither the time nor other resources to carry out systematic post-investigations. For them it would have to remain a more informal enquiry, and in practice, if invited in to follow up on a topic of interest, such individuals may occasionally have an uncomplicated chance to observe "subsequent" behaviour while assisting in a process of individual development. Let us consider then this more informal approach using more informal terms of reference and accepting achievement of the individual organiser's aims as measures of value. Even here there are at least two important pitfalls to bear in mind.

(i) If it is thought that we are in any way assessing and, worse yet, might be tempted directly or indirectly to communicate to others our assessment of individuals, this would undoubtedly have a profound effect on the relationship with colleagues and could potentially act as a great barrier to a trusting relationship in the future.

(ii) For our own sense of proportion, we must retain the humility to believe that if and when changes

of some sort do occur that they might have taken place anyway without our participation. But even if we had reason to suspect that a specific change was directly related to our own input, it could well be counter-productive to try deliberately to specify and assume credit for the actions of others.

In explanation of (ii), if we hope that our colleagues will take pride in teaching, it follows that we should encourage them to consider teaching achievements entirely their own--not a function of our manipulation or entreaties but rather a personal triumph. Equally, our colleagues are not immune to resentment if we try to seek cause-and-effect and attempt through their efforts to detail our own presumed successes. Admittedly there is pressure on us to specify "results" and justify our existence, but it would be folly to choose a way which may inhibit what we hope to achieve and diminish us in the eyes of the colleagues we hope to work with (Sayer and Harding, 1977). Thus a deliberate and systematic attempt to follow through and observe so-called "results" in the behaviour of others could hardly avoid the suspicion of assessment, could encourage false evidence of general behaviour, and would run counter to the desired goal of encouraging the development of self-assessing, self-monitoring individuals. In other words, although I doubt that we actually "can," even if we "could"--should we?

Discussion: Even if the arguments above are weak or poorly presented, there appears to be reasonable cause to question whether the specified assumptions are entirely defensible. Let us assume the worst and consider the reverse of our original three questions:

1. What if methods of training will *not* significantly improve university teaching?

2. What if we *cannot* convince university staff that they need to improve their teaching?

3. What if we *cannot* determine whether there is significant improvement in teaching following our efforts?

What then? What would this do to our position and what objectives and approaches would remain open to us in our roles? This enquiry can be reduced to two positive questions in seeking a positive formulation:

1. If we care about improving university education, then what can we attempt in general that will be useful and sufficiently welcome?

2. If we want to interest our colleagues to join in our general quest for improvement, what can we offer that will be useful and welcome *to them?*

This seems a more practical point of departure, yet in the introduction an earlier and more fundamental question was posed: "what do we hope to achieve?" The three answers are obviously related, and the latter two hinge on the answer to the first. Unfortunately the answer to that eternal question will not magically become any more straightforward here and now than in all the years past. But let us again consider it briefly.

What do we hope to achieve in higher education? The conflict between the practical goal of providing vocational/career training and the more philosophical aim of educating independent, thinking human beings still exists and is not easily resolved; both are nobly intended to serve perceived needs of society and many university teachers find that their own views on this remain in flux. It may be helpful therefore to consider what the "consumers" feel since their dissatisfaction was indeed a major springboard for much of today's interest in improving higher education. Many repetitive "complaints" have of course been heard from students about all the obvious aspects of their education, and I would argue that much of this is normal carping and of limited value in offering guidance. But it is interesting to note what students specify as their positive needs and interests when they take the occasion to thoughtfully formulate them. Student Unions in the United Kingdom were given the rare opportunity to do just that by the Hale Committee during its investigations in

the 1960s (*Report of the Committee on University Teaching Methods*, 1964). The National Union of Students of England and Northern Ireland (1961) dismissed the importance of teaching methods and pointed to what they saw as essential:

. . .we believe that some form of real personal association with some member or members of academic staff is essential to the student throughout his university career. . .whether teaching is undertaken through lectures or not, some close association between academic staff and student must be fostered in order that problems arising during the student's course of studies can receive a thorough airing.

The Scottish Union of Students (1964) assigned teaching methods a questionable amount of power, but this did not divert their attention from what they wished to see achieved:

Three of the most obvious effects (of teaching methods) are:

(a) the level of student failures;
(b) the number of students who take longer than normal to complete a particular course;
(c) the frame of mind towards learning with which a graduate leaves the university.

Although the first and second effects are the ones which receive most publicity, we feel that the third is the more important one as it obviously affects a far larger number for a far longer period. . .The universities must in our opinion continue to provide an academic education primarily even though in some subjects a training is given simultaneously. . .We emphasise here the need to ensure that the student graduates with a correct attitude to learning.

Trends in both student views and institutional response may differ from country to country, but in general have we honoured what our students have told us? In Britain I would say "relatively little," and we have in a sense been fortunate that students remain a captive but transient audience who, most of the time, tolerate whatever is on offer on behalf of the useful degree that they hope to obtain. Our colleagues, however, are neither captive nor transient and they will tolerate little indeed if

they do not like our "style," our values or our methods, or if they feel that our interests are not relevant to theirs (Cowan, 1977). Perhaps they will expect *more* of us than students do and, in the long run, that may be one of the most useful features of the movement towards professional development.

But is it only a matter of what "we" think may be useful to offer them? It is fair to pose the same question concerning our colleagues as was put about students? How much do we ask what their interests are and how much would we honour what they tell us? Certain aspects of staff response in Britain have already made themselves reasonably clear although there is little evidence that they are taken as active guidance. For example: if staff development ignores the priority that both institutions and individuals place on research activity and other non-teaching aspects of university lecturers' roles, and emphasises teaching as though it were a matter of single concern, it will lose the sympathy of many staff who will see it as out of touch with the realities they face on a daily basis. Equally if it presumes in some cases to say that it will "improve" people as human beings, it will be avoided by many sincere and hard-working staff who see this as an unwelcome and inappropriate exercise. University politics is clearly a dangerous area for vulnerable staff development programmes, but it cannot be totally hidden as a topic of real and daily concern. In short, in order to be seen as relevant, staff development must be reasonably compatible with the priorities and genuine professional interests of participating staff, and to achieve this, our colleagues will have to have a significant voice in determining the shape of events to come; *they* will have to specify what they hope to achieve (a useful exercise in itself) and what will be useful and welcome to them. Mechanisms must be found for achieving this kind of communication on a substantial basis as an input into professional development programmes and as a source of guidance for directions in the future.

A preliminary mechanism at my own institution has been an exercise called "Feedback to the Institution" in which staff have discussed realities and constraints in the university and reported the scope of their interests in professional and personal development as they saw it. This has been only a very small start, but it offers some early

"hints" for the near future of our institution's programme and indeed some operational justification when defending strategies to relevant committees. Early exercises have already altered the scope of our programme which was originally, like most, clearly and solely centered on teaching. It is also useful that in this way participating staff share some of the responsitility for the content of the programme; it has become a little more "their" programme; some thereby take a more personal interest in the program's success and a number have been very helpful from time to time in promoting the programme and assisting the organiser.

For the most part, success in professional development does not arise from "methods;" it is much more a personal responsibility and a matter of successful human relationships (Australian Vice-Chancellors Committee, 1973), not only between the organiser and others, but ultimately among those who attend as participants. In my view, if we *do* still want to think about "improving university *teaching*," we should believe that this same personal responsibility and requirement for fruitful relationships faces the classroom lecturer. Is this making too much of the "personal" element? I think not. The National Union of Students did not seem to think so. In an open democratic society, learning is divorced from the act of teaching; from our point of view, learning is *voluntary*. Perhaps then the real question for any caring teacher in our society is how to encourage students to *volunteer?* And perhaps if we want to have anything important to offer to our colleagues, we shall ourselves have to find out how to achieve this same goal in our experiments with them. Perhaps this should be our central task then--not how to impose ourselves and teach our colleagues what little we know or believe about higher education and their roles within it, but to ask the right questions and to get other staff to *volunteer* to help us learn.

THE FUTURE

Despite the topic recommended to me, I have devised no systematic proposals or predictions about the future. On the contrary, I feel that I am just beginning to learn about professional development and will have to find ways to learn a great deal more. However, I am prepared to make some general observations out of my present experience

which, if they do not prescribe or predict the future, may offer a few suggestions toward some aspects of philosophy and practice in the 1980s and perhaps an organic rationale for the idea that the activity called professional development should have a future at all. I will list the following items without defence; they are what I believe I have learned from my colleagues, most particularly those in my own university in their feedback to the institution.

Premises

1. In seeking resources one must offer something of value to financing bodies. In offering "value" to institutions, professional development must be seen at least to have the potential to be a positive force for achieving something which is valued by the institution.

2. Staff are affected by factors both internal and external to themselves. Professional development programmes do not exist in a vacuum; they may not be able to accomplish any more than participants--in their personal interaction with instructional opportunities and constraints--are willing, able and ready to accomplish.

3. Institutional atmosphere, value and reward systems, and actual practices and relationships in departments, are far more important in shaping the development of individuals than--say--the particular aims and abilities of staff development organisers or departmental advisers to new staff, or even the immediate interests and skills of participants. Development may in fact depend a great deal on what individuals perceive and *believe* to be occurring in the institution.

4. Professional development is an on-going process which takes place with or without conscious knowledge and institutional choice of direction.

Useful questions to ask institutions

1. How much consciousness and choice of direction is desired in the on-going process of professional development?

2. If an institution hopes that professional development can amount to a positive force for improvement in any aspect(s) of institutional life and work, how much congruence would be required between the institution's specific aim(s) and other relevant policies and practices which may occur?

3. Is it possible to significantly clarify institutional and departmental aims without some genuine understanding of the attitudes, perceptions and beliefs which guide the endeavors of individual members of staff?

Answers and recommendations for ourselves

1. There is still very much to be learned about the subtle, complex, on-going process of professional development. It is my hope that institutions will wish this learning to be pursued and perhaps--as realities begin to emerge more clearly--to lend some direction to the process. I believe it will be central not only to our "success" but perhaps even to our *survival* that we make this goal/option/opportunity clear to the institutions we serve.

2. The relationship between institutional aims and practices is always, but will be particularly crucial to development in a decade of limited resources; therefore, its implications should be, or should become, an essential focus in both our operational roles and research interests. But we must also consider the scope of our options--i.e., the question of our own relationship to the institution and relationship between our own aims and practices. Thus:

   (a) We must at last find ways to ensure that policy-makers take a broad view of professional development and not see it merely as an isolated effort to "train" academic staff, nor expect us to limit our interests to narrow areas like "teaching behaviour;"

   (b) We must enforce the above by making certain that a broad conception is both acknowledged

in our terms of reference, and clearly reflected in our programmes;

(c) It would be both conceptually and tactically beneficial in the next decade to view ourselves more as "reality-brokers" than as "change-agents." This would remove from us the image of trying to "tinker" with the behaviour of others and enable us to undertake more important investigations like the above.

3. Our own aims are, at present, no more straightforward and rationally defensible than those of institutions. This in part reflects the fact that both their and our aims cannot be significantly clarified without some genuine understanding of and congruence with the aims and interests of a major portion of working staff. As a positive step ahead:

(a) We should begin to seek substantial mechanisms for examining what may actually motivate and guide the development of staff.

(b) Alongside, or as an early part of this enquiry, direct feedback from staff to the institution is inherently useful and desirable; it also offers significant clues for the design of deeper enquiries and a unique source of guidance and support for professional development organisers.

(c) The above are in fact difficult and "delicate" pursuits and are likely in many cases to encounter or even encourage political opposition. But this should not prevent us from identifying them as intermediate goals and--in a sensitive and sensible way--commending their importance and multi-faceted value to our institutions.

CONCLUSION

The above recommendations are sufficiently general that the author can hope they will "sit" easily and gain some

approval. Specifics, on the other hand, are context-dependent and cannot be anticipated. Individuals will and should bring their individual gifts and enthusiasms to the task of professional development, and directions will be shaped by how their colleagues respond to these individuals, and how local opportunities and constraints allow their varied efforts to succeed and fail. There may and should be as many directions in the future as interested parties can find ways to "skin the proverbial cat," and if we pursue the task with zest, imagination and courage, and if luck and finance are with us, the movement towards professional development may indeed flower.

However, there are many dangers facing professional development programmes, not the least of which is our very vulnerable position in the competition for limited resources (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1978). But not all the dangers are external to us; on the contrary, there are some for which we ourselves must be held responsible. The most important danger I have in mind here--and one which should be stated again following much that I have recently seen and heard--is that if we, and correspondingly our institutions, do not welcome the continuing and inherent variety in professional development, and for whatever reasons seek or accept a recognisable, discipline-like approach to what is essentially an "act of faith," then professional development as a conscious effort in higher education may not survive this assault on its essential nature.

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PERSPECTIVES OF INSERVICE TRAINING IN EDUCATION FOR UNIVERSITY TEACHERS IN NORWAY

Per Lauvås

INTRODUCTION

The concept of staff development has not yet reached the Norwegian shores, at least as far as universities are concerned. Consequently, it is not at present appropriate to discuss how, and to what extent Norwegian universities are planning and implementing staff development programs.

For some years, however, efforts have been made to establish a program for educational inservice training for teachers at the University of Oslo. The term "training" should not be taken literally but rather to include a range of activities from courses (which have the character of workshops rather than classes) to consultancy services. When "we" occurs, it refers to a group of interested persons who have been actively involved in the planning, financing, and running of the program at the University of Oslo. This paper is not intended to cover the entire concept of staff development but will be restricted to one major element of it. In the first section the focus will be on teachers' attitudes towards concepts like education and teaching. In the second section, attempts will be made to point out some elements in an analysis of present teaching practices within the universities that are relevant to the question of the nature of educational training and service that should be offered. In the last section some principles will be proposed for the adequate functioning of educational training and service and the prospect for their adoption in Norway considered.

THE POINT OF DEPARTURE

John Dewey once suggested that the same relationship exists between teaching and learning as between selling and buying. It has been argued, however, that this is not correct; while there definitely is no buying without selling, there obviously is learning without teaching. What probably is more correct to say is that the teaching function presumably is the most significant intervention in the learning process.

However, the parallel between the two concept pairs is not as evident when one is considering compulsory education as it is when considering non-compulsory education. Courses offered to people who attend by their own choice must adapt to the present market situation. When a wish to learn exists, the need for education exists in the market. If a course or program will satisfy the consumers' needs to a reasonable degree, the participants will be positively engaged and results will be achieved if teaching is adequately planned and executed.

Within the marketing profession one is well aware of the fact that needs can partly be created. The same holds for education as well, but perhaps not to the same degree. In the field of non-compulsory education (e.g., education of university teachers in Norway), some of the principles from the marketing profession can be applied. This means that success is not only dependent on the professional quality of a program, but on the correspondence between needs and expectations of possible consumers and the underlying intentions of the educational planning group. Educational consumers always have some notion of what they want to achieve by engaging in an educational program. Their notions are not always ideas that can be clearly articulated; in many cases they are vaguely felt needs stemming from personal situations and attitudes towards the subject matter and vocation involved.

The point of departure in this paper is the fact that in the present situation in the field of teacher training and educational service within the universities, one has to recognize the needs of university teachers. In this

paper, one view of typical attitudes towards education will be presented. It is assumed that the same attitudes may play a part as significant obstacles both to the establishing of educational consultancy centers and to the adequate functioning of educational training and services within the universities.

The concept "educational training" does not have one, definite meaning. It could mean:

1. Teacher training, that is, programs for persons about to enter the university teacher profession. The program can be organized in the same way as programs in teacher training colleges.

2. Inservice educational training, that is, programs aimed at experienced university teachers with or without previous teacher training.

3. Consultancy services giving help to university teachers to diagnose and overcome specific problems related to their own courses. Consultancy services are usually located in centers established for this purpose. Centers can be divided into a technical and an educational section. In cases where the educational section is weak or missing, it is more appropriate to call them service centers or audio-visual departments than consultancy centers.

At the University of Oslo plans were made some years ago for establishing a consultancy center that should cover the functions mentioned under points no. 2 and 3 above. However, strong opposition to the plans made them impossible to realize. Instead, an ad hoc arrangement was set up so that the university after some time would have gained some experience with a small scale educational inservice training endeavor. In Norway, no teacher training or educational qualifications are required when applying for a position at the universities and, subsequently, introductory teacher training (no. 1 above) has not been discussed. Likewise, no consultancy service has been established.

A British report (Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education, 1975) sums up the present situation and the experiences gained so far in the U.K. One of the conclusions in the report is that many consultancy centers that were established during some affluent years (compared with what was to come) have not proved successful. Reasons that probably could explain the situation are presented and discussed in the report. What is important in this connection is that it is not reasonable to assume that the same factors may explain the opposition against the plans for the establishing of a consultancy center at the University of Oslo and the reported malfunctioning of British consultancy centers. The reasons listed in the report will not be argued, but there could be more profound factors involved. This paper presents one possible explanation which is based upon the experiences from Norway.

TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS EDUCATION AND LEARNING

Conceptions of education are related to conceptions of teaching and learning. In spite of the fact that everyone claims to know the meaning of these concepts, there are great differences in opinion as to the nature of the teaching and learning process. Others have pointed to the fact that education is a cultural phenomenon which occurs in all cultures but is differently valued in different cultures. Subsequently, the kind of education that is desired is dependent upon the central values of the culture in question.

Conceptions of education will influence the expectations as to what is desired to be achieved by completing a course in education or consultancy period. As discussed in the introduction of this paper, one can say that the university teachers' expectations define the needs in the market that the educational efforts should try to satisfy.

The university teachers we have met represent a cross-section as to age, sex, subject matter, background and motivation for educational training. Motivation and subject matter speciality are usually correlated; within

some departments of the university (especially law, humanities and social sciences) the motivation to engage in teacher training is almost non-existent. Consequently, resistance towards a consultancy center was greatest within these departments.

It is rare to meet a university professor who thinks he/she is living up to reasonable standards of teaching competence. One professor put it this way: "It is no use sowing in our department, we have not plowed yet." Even when the teaching standard is fairly good, the feeling of teacher shortcomings still prevail. What is worse, it is also rare to meet teachers who believe that educational training or service can help in improving the educational quality to any substantial degree.

In addition to the general depressed attitude towards one's own teaching, there are three more specific attitudes and conceptions that are vital to university teachers' image of education:

1. University teachers often have a *mechanistic conception of education*. They believe that there exist general educational principles that can readily be applied to make teaching effective. Trying to introduce them to educational theories and reflection is often met with objections; they do not want to learn theories, just simple facts and principles that represent the optimal way of conducting teacher functions. The underlying assumption seems to be that education is a kind of craftsmanship, and educational training is getting to know how to handle the content of the tool kit. This mechanistic conception of education is most commonly encountered in science departments.

2. Teachers often hold a *restricted conception of teaching* as what the teachers do when lecturing, when participating in small group sessions and so forth. The planning and preparation is a peripheral aspect of teaching. Revisions of curricula, analyses of objectives, coordination between different subjects and between teaching

and self-study, application of various teaching methods, teaching forms and evaluation procedures, integration of media and other teacher functions all play minor parts when teaching is referred to.

The emphasis on teacher performance is probably related to the belief that teaching is an art that cannot be taught or improved by teaching or guidance. The belief is that some persons have specific personality structures that make them especially well fit for teaching. Those who have the blessed combination of personality traits need no educational training, and those who do not have it cannot benefit from such training to a degree that counterbalance the costs involved. The conception of "the teacher personality" is often underlined by anecdotes of outstanding competent teachers, unspoiled by interventions of educators. This conception of the predetermined teacher personality is most frequently expressed by teachers within humanistic and social sciences but is encountered in all departments.

3. Teachers often hold a *restricted conception of learning* as well. Teaching is regarded mainly to be transmitting subject matter structures, understanding, skills, etc., to the students. Learning, on the other hand is mostly regarded to be an information receiving process, not as an active process in which students organize their own knowledge structure and in which teaching plays an important, but not crucial role. Empirical studies indicate that university teachers are talking about 75 percent of the time during teaching sessions and that the percentage almost keeps constant even in small group sessions. This reflects the teachers' view of themselves as verbal transmitters.

It should not be concluded that the conceptions presented are held by every member of the university teacher staff. However, we have grown accustomed to

meet expectations expressed from the participants that the courses should be directed towards practical advice on teacher performance, mainly related to one-way communication.

Unfortunately, members of the educational profession themselves have tried to satisfy the typical expectations directed to educational know-how. When teachers have asked for simple recipes for how to act, the educational experts have tried to deliver the merchandise ordered. Acting like this is educational suicide; experts in education cannot and should not try to provide educational panaceas. Some years ago, educational technology was the answer to the demands for more effective teaching methods. The result of the marketing campaign was like

. . . an unstoppered balloon (that is) released upon an unsuspecting audience: initially alarming, having unpredictable results and in retrospect found to contain a good deal of hot air (The Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education, 1975).

It is a futile line of action to try to adapt too closely to expectations from the market that the educational efforts are intended to serve. Educational experts have to make up their minds: How can university teachers benefit from education? What part can education play in the efforts of improving the quality of teaching within the universities? The analysis must be based on an evaluation of the present situation and on a rethinking of the nature of education itself.

AN EDUCATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

It is not an original observation that teaching at the universities is conservative or even old fashioned. Universities have long traditions which are highly valued, giving an identity that is valuable as a steady guideline, moderately affected by temporary shifts in societal ideologies and external influence. University teachers have been working within the educational system for the main period of their lives, exposed to the

teaching practices of their own teachers. It is a common observation that people think they have the insight required in educational issues because they have all been exposed to education. But, as it has been stated, persons know nothing about literature after having read one book. Furthermore, the experience on which they base their competence is from yesterday. It is easily understood, then, why teaching is not quickly adapted to meet new challenges in spite of the educational progress made during the last decades.

In order to have a broader basis for analyzing the needs for educational training, a conceptual scheme can be of some value. One useful scheme has been presented by Rotem and Glasman (1975). In their model it is assumed that persons involved in performing all kinds of tasks have some notion of what they want to achieve and what they actually obtain. A *discrepancy* occurs when a gap is perceived between intentions and outcomes. A discrepancy creates a *need* to reduce the gap. The strength of the experienced need is associated with how important the matter is to the individual. It is important when it violates internalized standards, aspirations or self-interest. The gap can be reduced in two ways, either by lowering the level of aspirations or by trying to improve the outcome. Attempts to improve the outcome are likely to occur if the domain in which the discrepancy occurs is important, otherwise it is more likely that the aspirations will be reduced. The probability of responding to a given discrepancy is a function of a need to do so and an awareness of available opportunities.

Applied to the university context, Rotem and Glasman point out that university professors are more inclined to research than to teaching because of prior training and the influence of training institutions. Further, though teaching is a major activity, it is not of major concern, neither to the individual faculty member nor to the university. Therefore, university professors are unlikely to perceive discrepancies in their teaching performance or to attribute importance to those discrepancies they do perceive. Their reference for excellence and competence is research, and it is in this domain that they legitimize their membership in the organization.

The essence of this analysis is that improvement in university teaching cannot be expected to occur unless at least two conditions are satisfied:

1. It is recognized by the universities that their faculty members have obligations both in research and teaching, and possibilities are offered for gaining rewards through teaching as well as research.

2. Someone is appointed to be responsible for educational training and consultancy services.

A corollary is that even when the two conditions are satisfied, time and effort will still be required to make educational services an integrated part of the university.

It is a truism to state that the society which education is to serve is constantly changing. University teachers are not generally unwilling to implement new teaching strategies and methods as long as the changes do not steal time from their research activity. However, a prerequisite is familiarity with adequate alternatives as well as strategies for implementation. It is not enough to perceive a discrepancy between intentions and outcomes and to experience a need to do something about it, one also has to know about alternatives that might be applied. Consequently, a major concern in teacher training and consultancy should be to spread information about present innovations in the university teaching domain. The process of implementing new methods is not a straightforward task. It requires understanding of the processes involved and careful planning.

No educational method is a good method in itself. When planning an educational program, the appropriateness of the method must be judged according to the aims and objectives of the program, the constraints imposed, the qualifications of students and teachers and attitudes and habits of the persons involved. Student and teacher roles are complementary. Changes in one of them implies changes in the other as well. So, plans for having a more structured and directive program than before will

not be successful unless the students accept their new obedient and compliant roles. And, vice versa, a program based more on student participation and influence than has previously been the case will not work unless the student role as active and responsible partners is accepted.

In short, innovative efforts must be thoroughly analyzed and planned where all the relevant and important factors are taken into consideration. The mechanistic conception of education often leads to implementation of new teaching strategies without sufficient analytical planning and without securing opportunities for evaluating the program. Educationally speaking, what university teachers need is training in identifying and evaluating the interplay between critical factors relevant to the adequate functioning of an educational program and in applying a conceptual scheme that enables them to integrate educational theories with accumulated experience.

The basic understanding of educational phenomena that is pointed to is of major importance for several aspects of the professional activity as a university teacher, institutionally (e.g., revisions of curricula), and individually when planning courses. It is also assumed that it eventually will lead to changes in attitudes towards some important elements of the educational system (student welfare, social aspects of education, teacher and student roles and so forth).

Our activities so far have led us to the conclusion that introduction to basic educational understanding should be a prerequisite for other educational training and services.

At the University of Oslo, our teacher-training model consists of two levels:

1. Training in general educational analysis and planning.

2. Introduction to a broad spectrum of educational issues, partly suggested by

faculty staff members, and partly by the educational staff. These are considered both in courses and during individual or group guidance.

Many university teachers undoubtedly feel a need for vitalization of their own teaching, for ideas on how to get students more actively engaged in the teaching process and for advice on how specific problems could be solved. Satisfying these needs is important, but our conviction is that the effect of the teacher training activity will be largely increased when the teachers themselves possess some skills in systematic educational analysis. Upon this platform, activities on the second level can be directed towards expectations in the market to a large extent. The reason for the conclusion lies partly in the nature of education itself.

As stated before, education should not be regarded mechanistically but rather as an artificial, cultural phenomenon. What is regarded to be good teaching is dependent upon the cultural context of the surrounding society. No educational method or principle can be universally applied. The decision-making teacher plans what to do according to the intentional outcomes of the teaching event. When deciding, the teacher has two broad categories of guidelines. One is the accumulated experience gained by him/herself or other staff members. The other is the general educational principles and analytical tools.

Speaking of Norway, it is probably correct to say that professors lean heavily on the experiences gained as a teacher and as a prior student and on what are common procedures within the university. It is common knowledge that a person cannot lift himself just by pulling his hair. So, in spite of individual exceptions from the rule, teaching based mainly upon previous experience remains more or less as it has been, in spite of ongoing changes in the subject matter that is to be taught, changes in the professions for which one is preparing, and changes in the student body entering the universities and in the society at large. The main

source of vitalization seems to be "foreigners," whether it is "true foreigners," or staff members with their education from abroad or with sabbatical leaves. The impact from "foreigners" is not great, however. Every society tends to protect itself from threatening external influence. At the same time, when considering education as a cultural phenomenon, experiences or influences from the same cultural context are relevant and not threatening, but also generally trivial. Influences from different cultures are irrelevant, threatening, but possibly important.

It is not easy for individual university teachers to carry out educational improvements. The results are uncertain, the costs are high. One cannot make experiments just for the fun of it when students' futures partly depend on what is being done. There will always be colleagues and superiors watching; they will even from time to time be antagonistic to the plan and happy if it fails because it means that there will be no major changes that will affect their teaching practice. So, university teachers need the help they can get from training and consultancy services, eventually making them more confident in what they are doing when planning and performing major as well as minor improvements in their teaching.

SOME RECOMMENDATIONS

The responsibility for success in training and consultancy will be improved if the following recommendations can be implemented:

1. Educational training and consultancy services should go hand in hand. After completing a course at the University of Oslo, a substantial number of the participants usually express a need for consultancy and guidance. The results obtained from a consultancy period are increased when the client posesses a basic educational conceptual scheme.

2. If possible, the chances for practical results from educational training and guidance are greater when all staff members from the same department participate in the same training or consultancy session. Individual representatives from various departments experience greater difficulties when trying to realize their plans than when several colleagues have been through the same process together.

3. The content of educational training sessions should be aimed at application. Theoretical considerations should not only be interesting, but useful as well.

4. Unrealistic expectations should not be created as to what the participants can successfully achieve. It is far better that the participants experience success with a moderately difficult task than breaking their necks on a difficult endeavor. After a training session, plans for the big educational revolution should be minimized.

5. Stimulate the establishing of educational networks among interested persons. Extended contacts between interested colleagues about educational issues could be a source for new ideas, experiences and critiques.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

It is not easy to predict the future of staff development at Norwegian universities. The present financial situation of the country gives no opportunity for implementing major programs. For several years now, most of the universities in Norway have had practically no new positions allocated. Within many departments, this situation has created a desperate need for having new positions within the next few years. Staff development has to be developed in competition with the needs of departments. Taking into consideration the teachers' attitudes towards educational training,

it is presumably correct not to expect any major breakthrough in this field.

At the University of Oslo, there has been a board, Kontaktutvalget for universitetspedagogikk, at work for several years now. It's main task has been to develop an educational program that could be applied on a regular basis. The outline of such a program has been developed but no decision has been made whether it should become a regular program or not.

However, at a national as well as at an international level, work is being done that might lead to steady progress. At a national level, a board, Det nasjonale kontakog informasjonsorgan for universitetspedagogikk (KIUP) is working with several aspects of staff development. For the moment, at least two activities seem to be worth noticing. One is the quarterly publication (UNIPED) that was started at the end of 1978 and will contain information about educational issues supposed to be of interest to university teachers. The second is the preparation of a recommendation to the universities about imposing upon universities in Norway obligations to have inservice courses in education run regularly. There are reasons to believe that the recommendations given in this paper will be given due attention.

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND CAREER STAGES

Eva Falk-Nilsson

INTRODUCTION

This paper is an attempt to illustrate some principles and suggestions concerning the problem of organising a staff development programme at the universities of Sweden. The description is however limited to that part of a programme which concerns the educational training of university teachers. A staff development programme should be seen not as an isolated action but as something which has to be analysed in close relation to both the single university teacher's life situation on one hand and the total university organisation on the other.

THE ATMOSPHERE--SOME VOICES

Student:	"Our teachers badly need some sort of educational training."
Department of Education:	"We did some research about higher education; the teachers and students ought to know about the results."
Another student:	"Our teachers ought to be forced to undertake a course of educational training!"
Minister of Education:	"I hereby ask the National Swedish Board of universities and colleges to start an investigation of the need of educational training of university teachers."
Third student:	"How can they possibly get their jobs as teachers without being trained?"

Teacher:	"I once took a course of educational training. I did not understand a word of what that pedagogue tried to tell us."
Department of Finance:	"First tell us how to know the value of it, then we will pay. . ."
Member of a faculty committee:	"We look upon the idea of training younger teachers with profound satisfaction."

All these voices have been heard through the organisational system for many years and are still heard--actually the number of voices are becoming larger and sounding more loudly on both sides of the argument.

The voices have been chosen to illustrate:

a. *needs*--those who first and utmost identify the needs of educational training of the teachers are not the teachers themselves but the students. They complain of not being able to hear what teachers say, read what teachers write, understand what teachers state or what to do or why to learn what they are asked to learn.
b. *problems*--there are teachers that identify a need for training but unfortunately stress more their colleagues' need than their own. Another problem is that those persons that have been doing research in education also need practice to be able to be teachers of educational training courses.
c. *time*--to start a programme. There must be an investigation--during which time passes by, fresh ideas are fading, needs are forgotten and a new generation of teachers and students ask for another way of solving the problem. Then you must, perhaps, start a new investigation?

What then does the organisation which has to answer the voices and to deal with the problems actually look like?

ORGANISATIONAL SYSTEM OF THE UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

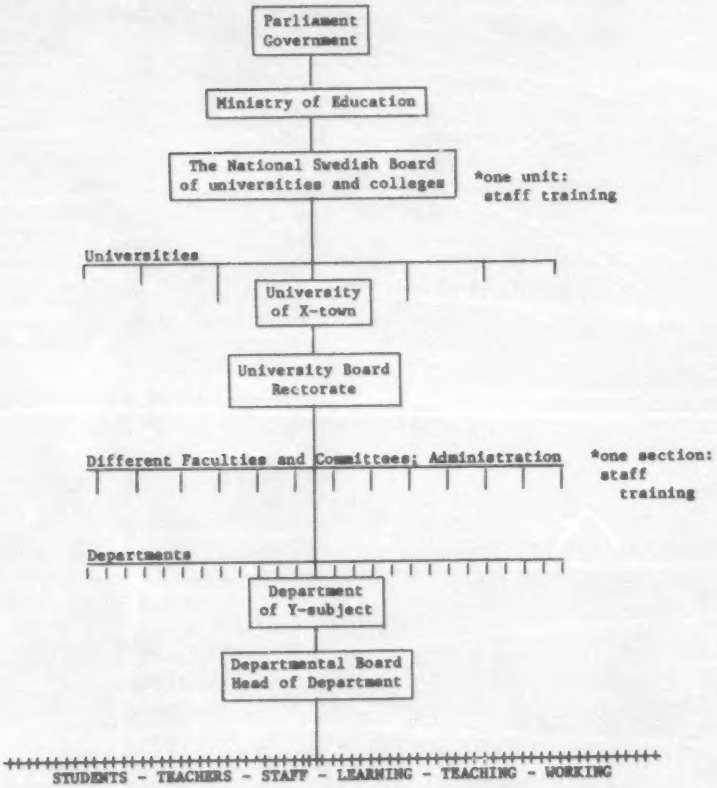

Figure 1

Figure 1 shows the formal organisation for decision-making of the universities of Sweden. This is the organisation through which the ideas, the needs and the money flow. It should be unnecessary to explain that at the higher levels of the organisation decisions about the money and the framework are made. The next level decides about some basic principles and at the level of each university, the detailed decisions about content, course programme, teachers, material, etc., are made.

The system struggles with well-known problems concerning educational training or staff development in the world of the universities, i.e.:

1. Many persons--students, teachers and pedagogues--and many committees and boards agree about the need of a staff development programme.

2. All those persons and committees have different opinions about the content, the object, the level of responsibility, the extent of centralized decisions and so on.

3. The traditional academic system of norms tells us that the most important activity is research; next to that, teaching; and next, not very important, staff training.

4. Nobody is really interested in putting money into a staff development programme--"It will work anyway."

Today we are able to write a bit of history about all the papers, investigations, experiments, remittances up and down through the organisation during the last 25 years.

Finally, the National Swedish Board of universities and colleges in 1974 proposed a staff development programme concerning the educational training of teachers.

This programme is based on the following principles:

1. The programme should be organised in a way which guarantees both exclusively subject-related content and cross-subject analysis.

2. The programme must have as its basis and principal emphasis the concrete, current problems formulated in the department by students and teachers.

3. The programme must be very flexible both concerning content and framework arrangements.

4. The educational training is supposed to be obligatory for every teacher who is employed after the 1st of July, 1976.

5. The training shall be part of the employment at the university not a qualification for employment.

Let us look at the framework of this programme:

Years of employment	Four steps of educational training	
	Organised outside the department	Organised inside the department
0-1 year	1. INTRODUCTION COURSE 1 week. The university as a place of work	2 weeks. Educational training & principles
1-3 years		2. EDUCATION SEMINAR 1 week. Educational problems of current interest
3-5 years	3. EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSE 2 weeks. Educational and organisational development; Learning theories; Educational policy	
5-8 years	4. EDUCATIONAL METHODOLOGICAL COURSE 2 weeks. Analysis of the problems of one specific subject	

Some short comments on each step of the educational training:

1. Introduction course

   This consists of two parts. The first part about "the university as a place of work" is designed for everybody who is employed by the university, i.e., teachers, administration people, laboratory assistants, drivers, telephone operators, workshop people, engineers, secretaries, etc. This part has so far mostly been planned and organised by the administration of the university (either the unit of educational development or the section of staff training) in cooperation with representatives from the different trade unions.

   The second part is designed only for beginning teachers and this course should be combined with educational tutoring at the department by a more experienced teacher.

2. Educational seminars

   Those are designed for every interested teacher at the department, which also takes full responsibility for the content of the seminars. The purpose is to penetrate current educational problems of the teaching-learning programme given by the department and to plan for its development.

3. Educational development course

   This course is administered by the National Swedish Board. Participants should be teachers from different universities in Sweden and different kinds of departments. The object is to allow a confrontation and exchange of experiences between, on one hand, different departments and subjects; on the other hand educational research, learning theories and educational policy.

4. Educational-methodological course

   This is supposed to be organised around the problems of one subject (English, arts, economy, etc.). Members from all departments of one subject in Sweden should join the course. International experiences will be used. The object is to analyse the relation between the structure of the subject as a research object and as a learning object.

The above described programme has been decided by the National Swedish Board of Universities and Colleges. There has not been much more than this detailed in the directions to the universities. The principle is that the directions should be very general in order to allow the experienced and special needs of every department to be met. Another idea is that there must be plenty of space for different experiments and development of each part of the programme.

The programme has to fit into the ordinary academic career outlined in Figure 2. An illustration of the possibility for combining the organisational system--the programme of staff development--and the university career is given in the following story.

THE STORY OF TEACHER BJÖRN ANDERSSON

Undergraduate BJÖRN ANDERSSON has after 3 years of studies received his first degree in the field of economics.

After this first period at the university he has to choose between leaving the university for some sort of job with some successful company or to stay at the university. Since he has a certain curiosity about a special field of problems concerning small companies and the international market, he chooses to ask for admission to the doctoral programme of economy--anyway it's worth a start.

The head of the department, professor KARL KARLSSON, allows his admission and offers at the same time a job as an assisting teacher. This solves, not satisfactorily but reasonably, Andersson's own personal problem of economy. Accordingly, Björn Andersson agrees to combine his doctoral studies with a job as *assisting teacher*. His duties now will be:

FROM UNDERGRADUATE STUDENT TO ESTABLISHED PROFESSOR: THE UNIVERSITY CAREER

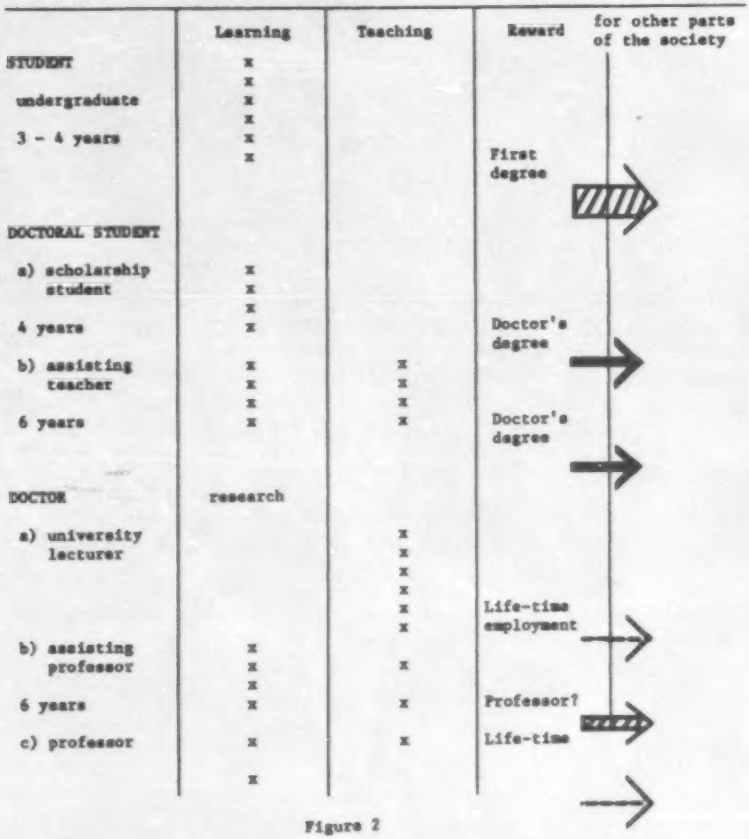

Figure 2

a) the writing of a dissertation;
b) teaching undergraduate students.

His time limit is 6 years and he is supposed to engage 50% of his time for a) and 50% for b).

Professor Karlsson, who is an experienced head of the department is not very happy about this arrangement. He, therefore, starts a discussion with Andersson and together they make up a very personal plan for those six years of the life of Björn Andersson. There is, indirectly, a contract signed between him and the department.

Year 1	
Doctoral programme	20%
Teaching and staff training	80%

The first year the expectations concerning the doctoral programme are very modest. So is actually the support. Andersson is asked to engage a little more in his field of interest, to try to delimit the problems he wants to study, to try to define his subject of dissertation and make up a preliminary time-schedule. The support is mainly discussions with his tutor.

On the other hand, he is thrown into quite a lot of teaching. Professor Karlsson asks his newest assisting teacher not, as one perhaps would expect, to teach at the lowest level of undergraduate studies, but at the level he just left. At this level, there are different optional courses. Björn contributes with a course in his own field of interest. The support of this part of Andersson's activities is the *introduction course* of 1 week plus 2 weeks.

The ideas behind those two arrangements, main activity teaching and teaching at the highest possible level, are:

a) Björn is not yet quite sure about staying at the university. He might very well leave after one year of doctoral studies. This year then must be useful to him even if he chooses to leave. Having worked intensively, probably rather alone and introvert, 1/6 of a dissertation is supposed to be less valuable to him than having experiences and some know-how about teaching, which by nature includes extrovert communication.

b) If you ask a beginner in the doctoral programme, who by his own motivation wants to concentrate his study on one limited problem, to teach at the same time at the lowest level of undergraduate studies, a level of broad orientation, you get two opposing forces inside your assisting teacher. Instead, his teaching duties should be given such organisation as will support his own motivation.

Year 2

Doctoral programme	35%
Teaching and staff training	65%

The next year, the doctoral programme includes finding references, reading, making contacts and starting one or two courses of research methods. The teaching duties resemble those of Year 1 but since the courses are at the higher level of undergraduate studies, he cannot make a routine out of them. Björn Andersson, therefore, is interested in taking part of the *educational seminars* of the department (1 week).

Year 3

Doctoral programme	45%
Teaching and staff training	55%

The doctoral programme now includes courses of research methods on a higher level, other special courses related to Andersson's field of interest, more readings and making a disposition of the dissertation.

The teaching now includes lower levels of studies, which also means more pupils in bigger groups. That leaves Andersson with new educational problems to discuss in the *yearly seminars*.

Years 4, 5, 6

Doctoral programme	55%	65%	80%
Teaching and staff training	45%	35%	20%

The time allowed for Björn Andersson to get more knowledge and the proficiency required for research work and to write the dissertation increases gradually. His duty of teaching is "paid off" in earlier years. He may concentrate on his own learning. The teaching again is specialised perhaps

even to the extent of tutoring or rather co-tutoring beginners of the doctoral programme. Under this period he has got enough experiences to be curious about other subjects and theories about learning and he chooses to take the *educational-development course* at a suitable time.

The *educational-methodological course* probably won't see Björn Andersson as a participant until he has received his Doctor's degree and has chosen to become either a *university lecturer* or *assisting professor*.

REMAINING PROBLEMS

1. The Parliament has so far only been willing to pay for the introductory part of the proposed staff development programme (full-scale).

   A full-scale staff development programme as described above is said to be a very expensive one. The arrangement of the courses, seminars, etc., should probably be possible to pay for; but the expensive part of it is, of course, the so-called "loss of production," i.e., the time the teachers spend for their own education. However, an analysis in terms of profit-and-loss must be very difficult to make. Through educational training of university teachers, we will profit not only in "production" quality, but also in many human aspects such as self-esteem, communication, job contentment, etc.

2. Research still is the outstanding qualification for an academic career.

   The credit system of the university career is still far too dominated by research qualifications. It even happens that those interested in their own educational training or the development of the teaching-learning system of their own department get "punished." While they spend their time on this, another person isolates himself in research work. The latter gets the next job in the department.

3. The educational training courses and methods of evaluation can be much improved.

   It is absolutely necessary that people working with educational training programmes are recruited not only from among educational researchers. When we get serious attempts to combine educational research and other sciences, there will be a real chance of having a basis for training teachers.

4. Research about higher educational problems and staff development needs better support.

   The support needed is both money and methods, attitudes and critics. The problems are so complicated that there, of course, is no one answer. That is why open communication is constantly necessary.

5. In most departments at the universities, the ideas--presented in this paper--of a conscious planning and coordination of different systems, norms and principles are still more or less a fiction.

PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

The universities of Sweden are supposed to spend less money over the next five years. This asks for a better staff even more qualified for its tasks. I do not only now talk about the teacher. This situation demands staff development planning and action. The struggle of the jobs inside the universities will be even harder--every credit will count, even educational training and experiences. The structure of the group of students will probably continue to change from younger to older persons. Then the teachers themselves will identify their needs of training--and not only an educational one. Through international contact, we might be able to get a wider research about higher education.

All these guesses are extrapolations of changes already started today. Good or bad guesses--let's wait for the'80s to get the answer.

DATA BASED FACULTY DEVELOPMENT IN MEDICAL EDUCATION

Arthur I. Rothman

INTRODUCTION

This paper proposes that faculty development in medicine should conform to the functional style of medical education. Each of the major professional training areas with a commitment to systematic faculty development has a functional style that is unique and that is, in all probability, determined to a large extent by the style of intellectual and academic activity incumbent in that profession. Therefore, to be effective the processes of faculty development must communicate in the local language, must bring to bear logic that is compatible with the local logic, and its practitioners (the faculty developers) must present as legitimate members of the local academic milieu. That is, the processes of faculty development in medical education must conform to the functional style of medical education.

Following this proposition, this paper lists the factors that contribute to the definition of functional style in the context of medical education and briefly describes educational development offices in Faculties of Medicine since these offices have traditionally assumed the role of developing faculty as teachers; describes two faculty development activities at the Faculty of Medicine, University of Toronto, that demonstrate dependence on or reaction to data that has been generated specifically for that purpose or that is part of the normal data flow and finally, speculates on future directions for faculty development in medical education.

FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO FINANCIAL STYLE IN MEDICAL EDUCATION

1. *The importance of medicine:* Medicine is viewed by its practitioners and teachers as uniquely important relative to the other discipline areas that are the

concern of the contemporary university. They believe that the life or death character of medicine requires that all aspects of its development and nurturance be accorded support of the highest quality. This attitude is all pervasive and applies without reservation or compromise to teaching in medical schools.

2. *The physical, financial and political status of medical education:* In the contemporary North American university the two most imposing physical establishments, as a rule, house the faculty of medicine and the library respectively. However, again as a rule, the most costly constituent in the contemporary North American University is the faculty of medicine. A medical faculty complement is large, its salaries are usually the highest on campus, the training cost per student is the highest in the university, and research is usually costly and highly developed. These factors along with the status derived from patient services result in a faculty group that is most probably the most influential on campus.

3. *The scientific approach:* The faculty views itself as a scientific community vitally involved in the care of humanity. It is motivated by its social purpose and sustained by the language and logic of science. Faculty are therefore compelled by arguments that are "scientifically" justified, i.e., by research. Consequently, research that reflects on student performance, student opinions, and faculty opinions and describes these characteristics of the educational milieu, clearly in quantitative terms, is seen by faculty as logical justification for faculty development activities. Furthermore, the relevance of these activities is assured if the research data are reflected in the planning of faculty development activities and explicitly treated as part of these activities.

4. *Respect for expertise:* The ever increasing complexity of medicine and in particular academic medicine has led to a proliferation of specialties and subspecialties and concurrently the development of

supporting administrative and academic structures. The contemporary style of medical practice and consequently medical education involves matching the needs of the moment or situation with the appropriate sources of expertise. Expertise, properly credentialed and demonstrated credibly, is respected and used as a matter of course. In the context of faculties of medicine, this principle is applied to the roles and operations of resident medical educators. The medical educator is viewed as the consultant in education and used in the same vein as medical consultants in the various medical subspecialties.

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT FACILITIES IN MEDICINE

Since the early 1960s educational support facilities have become normal and integral parts of the majority of medical schools in Canada and the United States.

These facilities range from large, well established, well funded, and internationally noted academic departments of medical education to small offices consisting of a physician and a secretary. The staff complements of the major departments consist of professionally trained individuals drawn from the various subspecialties of education and from medicine. In the small offices the physician has indicated an interest in teaching and has probably experienced some systematic training in education. Usually the small offices involve part-time appointments to the dean's office in, for example, an "Office of Educational Research," or "Office of Educational Services."

The medical facilities have the following in common:

1. They relate to (contribute and access) professional organizations such as the American Association of Medical Colleges, the British Association for the Study of Medical Education, and the Association of Canadian Medical Colleges that legitimate their activities,
   a. academically by providing the opportunities for scientific reporting of medical education research at annual meetings and in specialty journals, and

b. pragmatically by bringing together on a national or international scale the educational specialists with those responsible for running the educational programs of medical schools (deans, associate deans, department chairmen, etc.).

2. They identify their efforts as legitimate academic functioning in a specific subdiscipline of medicine and/or education called medical education that has currency in the context of rewardable university activities. For example, in most centres research in medical education is viewed as desirable and appropriate and may include studies relating to admissions, curriculum design and evaluation, teaching process innovations and evaluation, man-power planning, the definition of performance criteria and assessment procedures, models of medical problem solving, computer simulations of medical problem solving, etc. Moreover, educational consulting and the administration of more formal faculty development programs is considered service in the sense associated with that function in the traditional teaching-research-service trilogy.

3. They operate "in depth" through the development of viable working relationships with various individuals, sectors, and committees in the medical faculties over extended periods of time, and in so doing gain intimate knowledge of the content, people and organization of their faculties. For example, it would not be unusual for a medical educator to be associated, over a period of years, with a particular faculty constituency during the planning, development, implementation and evaluation of a new educational system.

4. They are the source of most activity relating to the development of teaching faculty as teachers. These activities range from highly structured and formalized graduate and post-graduate training programs in medical education through workshops and short courses directed at the improvement of teaching skills to individual consultations directed at the resolution of discrete problems.

5. In the long term most offices have beneficially affected the education functioning of their faculties in manifestly observable ways. For example, the introduction of systematic approaches to curriculum development, more rational systems and policies relating to student assessment, and regular and systematic evaluation of curriculum and teaching may be traced to the influences of medical education personnel.

EXAMPLES OF DATA-BASED FACULTY DEVELOPMENT IN MEDICINE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

Two examples of data-based faculty development follow. The first occurred in the context of basic science instruction and involved the collection of data specifically for the purposes of faculty development. The second describes development activities that occurred in reaction to extant data describing student achievement and program effectiveness in the context of clinical instruction.

1. At the University of Toronto, the first year of the four-year program in medicine is devoted to instruction in the basic medical sciences and includes an introductory biochemistry course. In response to a request from the biochemistry course coordinator an evaluation of the course was carried out that included observations of instruction and systematic collection of opinions from both faculty and students concerning the nature, quality and appropriateness of instruction. This process in our context normally constitutes the basis of a faculty development exercise. The model is simple: at the request of a faculty constituency, information is analyzed and returned along with interpretations and recommendations. This may be followed by discussions or more formally structured sessions directed at the remediation of the problems identified in the evaluation data. If appropriate, the impact of these faculty development interventions is monitored.

   One aspect of the biochemistry evaluation involved the definition, by both faculty and students, of

the functions of lecturing in that course. At the end of the course both groups completed a questionnaire entitled, "Functions of Lecturing," that required responses to a list of items organized under the headings, "Imparting Information," "Changing Attitudes," "Promoting Thought," and "Stimulating Action." The consulting educator's proposition was that student-faculty similarities in perceived functions of lectures were desirable, and that gross discrepancies were undesirable and should be remediated. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that student ratings of lecturers (excellent, good, etc.) would be inversely related to gap scores for individual lecturers that reflected the differences between student and respective faculty perceptions of the functions of lectures.

The following are examples of the type of information generated. Under "Imparting Information," whereas both students and faculty agreed that a function of lectures was to provide an example of a scholarly or critical approach to biochemistry, faculty more so than students felt that lectures should indicate important sources of reference. Under "Stimulating Action," students felt that lecture should promote dialogue among students about biochemistry, whereas faculty did not.

Results of this type constituted the basis of discussions with faculty directed at the identification of realistic and appropriate lecture functions and insuring that these functions would be made explicit to students in future.

Figure 1 presents the data relevant to the hypothesis of an inverse relationship between the extent of student satisfaction with lectures and the lecturer's respective gap scores. The data relating to four of the five biochemistry lecturers supported the hypothesis and seemed to confirm the appropriateness of this approach to faculty development for these four teachers. Lecturer 5 was identified as "superb" by the vast majority of students; however, the gap between his and his students' perceptions of the functions of lecturers was the greatest of any of

the biochemistry lecturers. This anomalous result reconfirmed a fundamental truth that recognizes the error of expecting all individuals to conform with empirically defined positions relating to teaching and learning*

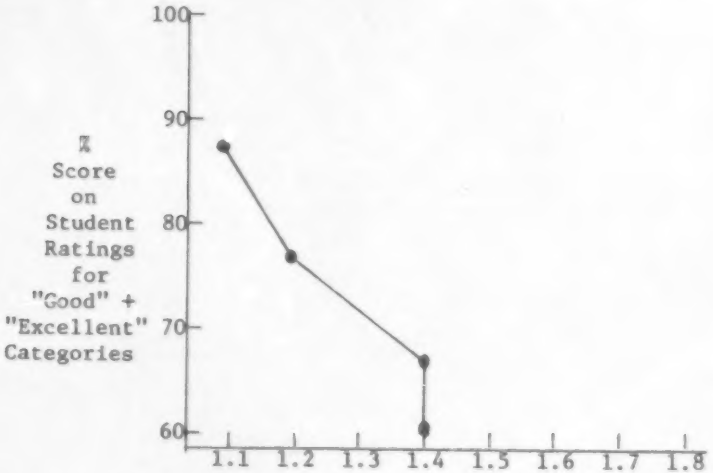

Figure 1

2. Clinical instruction at the University of Toronto occurs mainly in seven general teaching hospitals. Whereas the objectives of the clinical curriculum are defined centrally, the administration and implementation of the clinical part of the curriculum are done at the hospital level. Thus, within centrally defined limits, the system consists of

**Dr. R. Tiberius and Dr. P. N. Byrne, both of the Division of Studies in Medical Education, University of Toronto, and principal investigators in the Biochemistry Study, provided the information summarized here.*

seven essentially autonomous clinical colleges. In-course assessment of student clinical performance is done locally; however, the final assessment of students involves a nationally administered paper and pencil examination that is the vehicle for Canadian certification.

As a matter of course, final (fourth) year students have been systematically surveyed to provide information concerning the character and quality of the clinical training programs that they have experienced. Hospital profiles derived from these data and coupled with hospital mean scores from the national certifying examinations have been instrumental in identifying problem areas in the clinical programs of some hospitals. This has led to corrective faculty development activities consisting either of extensive consultation by medical educators or more formally structured workshop-type programs (Byrne and Rothman, 1976).

More recently the lack of correspondence between the hospital mean scores on the national examination and the locally administered assessments of clinical performance has led to the introduction of a program directed at the development of more systematic and standardized approach to the assessment of the clinical performance of medical students in their final year. This in turn will be followed by appropriate training programs for the teaching faculty.

With respect to the overall management of the undergraduate medical curriculum at the University of Toronto, the present policy requires a summary of faculty and student assessments and student achievement for each course. These statements, compiled by the local office of Medical Education, are directed to the central curriculum management committee and to the appropriate faculty constituencies. Where indicated, remedial faculty development services are provided. This model of faculty development is essentially a medical one, consisting of the collection of information, diagnosis, and treatment; the corresponding educational analogue is the collection of data relating to teaching and

learning, the identification of problems, and bringing to bear the appropriate faculty development activities.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In general there have been two sources of rationale for the courses and workshops that are the characteristic formal and structured approaches to the development of faculty as teachers in medicine. The first is a perceived, generalized need for more effective teaching and learning within a particular constituency. The response in this situation has been the offering of programs that involve comprehensive coverage of a particular contemporary model of teaching and learning or a significant segment of such a model, e.g., the evaluation of student achievement. The goal of these programs has been to effect better teaching. These types of programs have been offered on a large scale both internationally and nationally by the Division of Health Manpower Development of the World Health Organization, and by major university centres such as the University of Illinois, Centre for Educational Development, and locally by most medical education facilities.

The second, the focus of this paper, involves the more pointed response to specific teaching and learning situations defined in evaluative or descriptive data collected for the purpose of focusing faculty development activity or that are part of an institution's normal data flow. This approach to faculty development is most appropriately applied locally and occurs with considerable frequency. For example, four of seven papers presented at the 1977 Conference on Research in Medical Education (Association of American Medical Colleges) dealing specifically with faculty development justified the collection of descriptive or evaluative data with reference to their role in defining focused and structured approaches for the development of faculty as teachers (D.M. Irby, 1977; H.L. Stone and H.J. Knopke, 1977; J.N. Cassie, 1977; and F.T. Stritter, 1977). The Division of Faculty Development's (Association of American Medical Colleges) national survey of the status

of medical teaching in the United States, which included the use of specially designed self-assessment programs at the institutional level, and the ensuing development of responsive faculty development workshops is the one extant large-scale program in this second category.

Both approaches to faculty development have been implemented widely in medicine with significant effect. They are directed, however, at the achievement of different goals with the first concerned with comprehensive knowledge of a teaching/learning model (or part of) along with the appropriate skills; and the second directed at the remediation of or reaction to specific situations identified in educational data. They can operationalize differently in that the first requires formally structured programs whereas the second accepts the whole spectrum of potential learning "modes" about teaching, from reading relevant articles in the medical education literature to individual consultations with medical educators to structured, formal and highly focused workshops or seminars.

Both approaches have been used effectively at the Faculty of Medicine, University of Toronto. However, the faculty views data-based activity as a normal and integral part of its functioning and the effect of this approach has been pervasive.

THE FUTURE--SOME SPECULATIONS

Reflection on the future of faculty development in medical education requires reflection on the probable directions of development of the medical education offices. For obviously what will appear as faculty development in the future must be consistent with the broader developing roles and responsibilities of these offices.

Self-examination, a not uncommon academic practice, is carried on with energy and persistence by most members of the community of medical educators. This is the behavioral consequence in a group of self-perceived academics that is insecure because of its location

between disciplines and because of its service role. More recently this insecurity has been exacerbated by financial pressures and also strangely by the consequence of the group's past successes--medical teaching faculty who are now more sophisticated and skilled in educational science and practices.

The most recent articulation of the results of this self-examination are listed below and represent options, not necessarily mutually supportive, that are being given tentative examination at present and that are perceived as probable pathways into the future. Each of these pathways carries unique implications for faculty development.

1. Through greater identity with and commitment to the health professions and less linkage with the "home disciplines" such as education, psychology, sociology, etc., medical education (or health-sciences education) will be established as a discipline. This will be achieved through the definition of research programs that are data-based, pragmatic, action oriented, and related to models that are unique to medical or health education. The research and service capacity it spawns should be proactive rather than reactive in origin. This development will acquire an academic environment and will assume the traditional academic responsibilities for staff--teaching, research and service.

   It is probable that this direction will proffer a systematic approach to faculty development that derives its form and content from the new discipline. Its objective will include the training of new "department of medical education" staff and the development of faculty as teachers in the health sciences.

2. Through the development of a research base and expertise in the area of health education and health care training, medical educators will become more directly involved in the processes of patient and public service in programs of

patient education and health promotion. These efforts will be consistent with and supportive of current trends that are directed at the development of preventive capacity, the control and reduction of diseases with occupational and environmental origins, and the more efficient and cost effective management of chronic patients. The development of training programs for health educators will be fundamental to the success of this type of activity and will constitute the essential faculty development objective associated with this direction.

3. In North America historically the development of medical educational-development facilities preceeded similar university wide developments. Consequently, the more recent growth of university centres has and will provide the opportunity for a wider distribution of the relevant skills and expertise developed in medical schools. It will not be uncommon therefore for the problems of shrinking budgets and personal insecurity to be partially alleviated through the involvement of medical education personnel in university wide activities. As a result, approaches to faculty development that have proved effective in medicine will be applied elsewhere in the university, appropriately modified to accomodate to the functional styles of the new hosts.

Movement in the directions described will be evolutionary and not sudden, and present approaches to faculty development should persist with only minor modification. Furthermore, the choice of pathway(s) by particular offices will be determined by local pragmatics rather than by any consensus within the community of medical educators.

In addition, the proposition at the start of this paper concerning the need for concordance between the styles of faculty development and the functional style of medical education must still be considered valid. Hence, a continued

reliance on data-based and empirically justified faculty development is assumed.

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT BY TEAM-WORKING: THE CASE OF THE OPEN UNIVERSITY COURSE TEAM

Judith Riley

INTRODUCTION

At the Open University teaching is conducted at a distance, with students studying for their degrees largely in their own homes, in the evenings and at weekends. They are sent specially written textbooks, taped lectures, correspondence exercises and experiments to try at home, and there are television and radio broadcasts for nearly all the courses. All these materials are prepared at the University's headquarters, in the new city of Milton Keynes, by teamwork.

SECTION I: OPPORTUNITIES FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT

A fictional letter introduces the range of opportunities at the Open University for developing teaching skills.

THE OPEN UNIVERSITY

The Open University
Institute of Educational Technology
Walton Hall
Milton Keynes. MK7 6AA

20th July 1978

Dear John,

I was very pleased to get your letter about opportunities for staff development here. There is never enough time at an interview to discuss these things properly.

From what you say I'm going to assume that your interest is in improving your teaching, rather than in developing your research skills or administrative competence. And despite what I suspect to be an unusually high rate of divorces and nervous breakdowns, the OU is not yet into the personal counselling or human potential movements, so you need not fear nude encounter groups on the lawn!

We put our main reliance for staff development on our system of working in course teams, which I'll explain in a moment. We don't run a special induction course for new staff because we feel that people vary so much in their needs and interests that it would be impossible to hit the right content, level and timing for everyone. We do have occasional more specialised courses, however, there's one for Technology lecturers and another for work with the BBC just after you arrive. Let me know if you might be interested in the latter and I'll see if I can get you a place.

We can also finance you to go on a course or to a conference outside the OU and you'll find lists of current ones on the faculty's teaching noticeboard. Some are about teaching and learning in higher education as a whole and some more specifically about the problems of working with students who are adult, part-time, or at a distance. However, I think you'll find that such external events are not seen as very useful by your colleagues, perhaps because, like internal courses, they rarely connect with exactly what's bothering you, and partly I fear because they are not always very well taught or organised--did you see a lovely "Cautionary Tale" in the June 1978 issue of *Impetus?*

Within the OU you'll find that there are frequent seminars on teaching matters, very often reports from the six main research groups in my institute. We had a good one recently on the evaluation of one of your faculty's television programmes; it got much deeper than the usual reliance on students' perceptions of the difficulty and interest of what they'd seen. This was organised by a joint faculty/BBC/IET researchers' working party and I can recommend you to get onto some groups like that; the discussions can be very good. In

general with seminars though, you'd be well advised to call up the speaker before you go, as some seminars concentrate on research methods and while I do think that for you to do some educational research would develop you as a teacher, I can't really recommend it as a priority just yet!

You may be the kind of person who prefers to learn alone from written papers. If so there's certainly plenty of material, the problem is to know where to start. I think I'd like to show you three main sources, as well as the library collection of books, conference reports and journals. In my institute there is a collection of over 800 papers, many of them unpublished and closely related to the work here. They are indexed, using our own terminology, such as computer marked assignments, developmental testing and unit-writing. Another useful source is a series of teaching topic sheets within the new Course Production Handbook. These give a quick outline of current good practice and, very helpfully, the names of a few people who are willing to be telephoned for advice. Immodestly, I'd like to show you the series of notes I'm producing which record the advice I usually give your faculty--very down to earth stuff.

All this probably sounds a bit overwhelming, especially if you were hoping to be sent on a three day induction course and then left in peace! But I know it will sort itself out once you are established on a course team; all the course, conferences, seminars and reports will be there if you want them, but in the background.

I gather that you will be joining the new team designing the urban planning course. They intend meeting every Wednesday from September 13th to discuss ideas, and you'll be expected to contribute like everyone else. Then you'll probably be allocated two or three weeks of the course as your special responsibility for more detailed design work. That may not sound like much but it is the equivalent of twenty or thirty student contact hours, and they expect to have about 500 students every year for about six years.

The team will probably want to see a brief outline of your ideas and then when everyone is happy with this, you'll be given several months to prepare full drafts of the written materials for the correspondence teaching and detailed plans for any other kinds of teaching you want to use. The team will comment on these drafts and plans, and I will arrange for some kind of testing of them with students and tutors, and you'll get your chance to learn what the others are preparing and to suggest improvements in them.

The general opinion here seems to be that working in this way in teams, designing new courses together, is not only good for the quality of the teaching that is produced but that it is also a very good way of learning for the team members. Most people also like working in this way and end up as friends.

Do ring me when you're settled in, or before then if you want to talk further. I look forward to working with you.

Yours sincerely,

Judith Riley

Judith Riley,
Lecturer in Educational Technology

SECTION II: THE TEAM-WORK PROCESS

The letter reproduced above stressed team-working as the most important opportunity for learning about teaching at the Open University. In this section the nature of that opportunity is elaborated and some suggestions for improving its value are given.

While much may be learned in the early discussion stages of course planning, probably the most telling experience is provided when the new staff member has to expose his own work to his colleagues. This stage of the process

is organised in a variety of ways by different teams, but all involve the new author in drafting some material and distributing it to the team for comments. Four systems of commenting are described below: informal discussion, discussion focused on a paper, reflective discussion, and written comments. Additional reactions to the draft material are usually sought from the academic staff of other universities and from trial use with the Open University's students. However, it is comments from colleagues that appear to have the most impact on new members of staff.

Traditionally the draft of each unit in a course is circulated to the course team and then at a team meeting they comment on it to the author, who subsequently goes away to redraft the unit. This system of commenting gives an author a broad range of views from the whole team and ensures that all the team are aware of the contents of each draft. The force of face-to-face reactions can be very convincing for an author who is resistant to making changes. It is also the expected method for many course teams.

However, it has some grave disadvantages as normally practiced: it is very frightening for most authors and in consequence they are too busy, while thinking on their feet and trying to deflect criticism, to take in much of what is said. The team tend to be more concerned to avoid open conflicts and to protect their own positions than to offer penetrating comments. Often very few members have read the draft carefully as they expect others to do this, and hence many comments are negative and superficial. It might be made more effective by giving the author a one-to-one discussion with another team member before the meeting, to defuse some of his fears and to prepare him for the wider debate. Tape recording or very full minuting of the discussion by someone other than the author could also help. Making two to four members responsible for full reading of the draft and for sending additional written comments would also be a useful improvement.

A modified form of course team discussion is used in

some Mathematics teams, where the discussion is focused around a written paper, such as an analysis of changes recommended as a result of feedback from students' testing of the draft.

This approach has all the advantages of traditional discussion. In addition, in Mathematics the draft has been worked on by the Chairman and/or academic editor as well as the original author, so there is some feeling of shared responsibility and the author is better prepared for the discussion. The focusing paper of recommendations, if the meeting is well chaired, ensures a constructive discussion of the whole draft and often matters of general principle for other units come up too. In Mathematics it is possible for members who have not studied the draft before the meeting to make helpful contributions in the discussion, but this may not be as true with courses in other subjects.

However, this method has the disadvantage of needing more time: time from the author of the draft for preliminary discussion and redrafting and time from someone else in preparing a focusing paper for the meeting.

Another alternative is to ask a single commentator to prepare some kind of summary of an important aspect of the unit. For example, this could be a network diagram of the conceptual structure that he perceives in the draft, or a student's timetable of the learning experiences that appear to be being proposed. The summary material is then discussed by the commentator with the author of the draft, looking for omissions and imbalances. They revise the summary together and the author takes the revised version away from the meeting as a guide for redrafting his unit.

This system gives the author a chance to see this draft with new eyes and the discussion can be very penetrating. The author goes away with a document that, as it is revised during the meeting, records the discussion and shows the reasons behind its conclusions; he may also have an agreed list of actions to take. It is thought that some authors may learn to prepare their own

analyses of their drafts or even to write the drafts *after* analysing their proposed content, as a result of this method of commenting.

However, this method has the disadvantage of usually needing at least a week of very demanding work from someone other than the author, in order to cover only a single aspect of the unit. Some authors might find this approach too unfamiliar and suggesting such major changes that they would find it unacceptable. A further disadvantage is that the course team as a whole is not forced to participate and study the unit.

Written comments, either as annotations on the draft or forming a separate paper, can provide detailed reactions and suggestions which the author can make use of in his own time. These do seem to be welcomed by authors and are not felt to be as threatening as face-to-face discussion.

However, as commonly practised, this method is usually very poorly organised with authors receiving only a few sets of comments and often then only if they chase up team members to do it. Commentators tend to tail off towards the end of the unit, some are not very prolific, some comments do not advance the author's understanding of his problems, and some are too unspecific to be helpful. The team send in their comments separately and do not see each others' reactions, so they cannot tell if the author has taken note of even a strong majority opinion.

This method could be made more effective by designating two to four commentators and by the author providing a brief for commentators. The major comments might be written up as a separate paper, as annotations may appear less carefully prepared; and an opportunity given for the author to discuss the comments with the team, its chairman or the course's educational technologist.

SECTION III: LEARNING FROM TEAM-WORK

This system of working together with one's academic colleagues, which involves a lot of externalising of opinions about teaching and discussion of each other's draft teaching materials, can be seen as very near the ideal described by David Warren Piper (1977):

The essential spirit of "staff development" is caught by a group of colleagues meeting together to identify their common objectives, identifying problems in their achievement and then jointly deciding on a course of action.

He goes on to claim that:

Time and encouragement to discuss work. . . . Ideally that would be the starting point from which the rest of the programme would follow. This ideal is not the simple reflection of a view of what human relations should be (although many of us would subscribe to it) but is backed with a host of research work in applied psychology about involvement and alienation of people in organisations.

At the Open University all academic staff who do not hold purely research appointments work in course teams. Consequently this form of staff development has the considerable practical advantage of reaching all our centrally based teachers, including those whom John Cowan terms apaths (Sayer, 1978). Similar opportunities for group working among the university's large staff of part-time tutors are not provided and this is recognised as a legitimate source of complaint.

Despite these advantages of support from applied psychology and of availability to all the Open University central staff, there are several possible criticisms of using team working as a means of staff development. One of these might be that members of our course teams rarely have a solid grounding in educational technology; in their discussions it is unusual to hear the terms knowledge structure, behavioural objective or illuminative evaluation, or

to see these ideas being used in practice. However, to quote Susan Sayer (1978):

. . . anyone who has been around long enough to remember the history of widely-heralded innovations like--say--programmed learning, the systems approach, the onset of educational television, etc., which were expected to ring in the millenium in educational advancement, may be considered eminently sensible to add us to this list and regard us with the scepticism which history recommends.

There *is* some good advice available to the teacher who is trying to pass a neat review of the known state of his subject from his head to all his students' heads as easily as possible. In that case, starting off with objectives, ordering the material into small steps and adding opportunities for students to check and practice what they've learned, seems fine. But that is not the aim of large parts of Open University courses. These teaching methods seem relatively inappropriate for demonstrating the existence of controversy and the excitement of a still developing area of research, or for helping students to become independent critical thinkers (Harris, 1976). Acquainting course teams with the ideas of traditional educational technology seems neither appropriate to all their aims nor always appropriately researched: what works for school-children or army officers may not suit the Open University's adult home-based and self-motivated students.

A related criticism of staff development by team working might be that satisfying one's colleagues is not the same as teaching effectively; that course teams lack adequate criteria of good teaching to underlie their advice to each other. But what should these criteria be? Examination successes? Popularity with students or employers? Student opinions on the difficulty of the course? In a course team all these and many more criteria more related to the values of academic excellence and the specific nature of the subject of the course get discussed at length. The emphasis in the team's advice to new colleagues is

usually on content selection and on whether the material is complete and up to date. Teaching principles, such as the value of variety or of active participation by the learner, are also given in their subject matter context.

Turning to a third area of difficulty, although most of the course teams develop pleasant constructive atmospheres, there seem to be three types of less satisfactory teams. Most groups contain differences of opinion, but in a few teams people are so determined to agree on everything and to standardise everything, that they have to compromise severely. A kind of lowest common denominator effect comes into play. In other teams, members have complained of prima donna chairmen, who impose their views to the exclusion of much valuable discussion. And there have been course teams whose members were so determined not to usurp each others' rights or to have their own creativity interrupted, that laissez faire ruled and each member went his own way.

Individual members sometimes take up positions that reduce the staff development benefits of team membership. Some new lecturers are so over-awed by their colleagues that they are unable to ask for help with specific problems and become confused when they receive contradictory advice. Others, in the fight for tenure or promotion, may be over-concerned to prove their academic erudition and to stand out from the rest of the team.

There is another area which may best be seen as an opportunity that is being missed rather than a criticism of staff development by team work. Experienced team members are often full of suggestions of how the final product should look or what it should contain, and yet they seem to be reluctant to discuss the problems of implementing these proposals.

There seem to be several different strategies for coping with these difficulties. For example, it is common to feel a need to step back and get a fresh view of one's plans at intervals. To quote one

member of a course team:

I find that three weeks is a fairly crucial period, if you look at things in less than that then you tend to agree with them and think yes, it's alright, but over about three weeks I find that a lot of that commitment and struggle has gone out of my mind and I can look at it much more dispassionately, and then I can begin to see that that section is alright but that that section is awful.

Others rely on getting it typed:

. . . you can criticise it better; it really does look different. . .

For some, comments from the rest of the team provide this fresh look but this is not always the case:

You get some people who seem to react simply to the very surface level and very rarely do people come back to you and say, "Well this looks alright on the surface but surely what you ought to be doing is getting underneath and taking it in that direction." . . . I find that's very rare. . .and I think that for me that's the desirable learning side of having discussion.

A second, and very common, difficulty in preparing teaching material is to say all that you feel is important to say, in a way that does the material justice, within whatever amount of time is available for the students:

. . . you can't synthesise things too far, or else they get trivial. . .with the wealth of information that I have collected. . .once your mind is attuned. . .you start building up quite a knowledge of the area. . .I think you've got to write at length, in order to get it straight. . .

I think perhaps I was safeguarding myself. . .you're so unclear as to what the standards are, that you want to cover everything. . .I've got to make sure that person knows I do know. . .I had to make sure

everything was watertight.

Strategies for coping with this problem are used at both the overall course planning stage and on the full draft:

. . . when I'm able to work on the design of the course then I can say you know, I need more than that to do so and so. . .having done some things early on which were quite wildly inappropriate, one begins to see the kind of range.

I do go into, particularly into the third draft, with this idea of "What have I said?" "Why have I said it?" and "Could I have said it more clearly?" . . .I do think that's important. . .(it) may not end up with fewer words, but it may in my mind be a lot clearer, and to me, that's cutting down on student time, because it's easier to read.

CONCLUSIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Staff development by team-working has some strong advantages over alternatives which operate off the job. It has a sound theoretical basis as a situation in which to learn. At the Open University it has the additional practical advantage of being the normal working arrangement for all staff. In exploring the kinds of advice that are available in Open University course teams, this paper has drawn attention to the admirably wide range of criteria of excellence in teaching that come up, including what can be seen as a healthy concern for careful selection of subject matter.

However, these positive aspects have to be contrasted with three areas of concern. The first of these is already a legitimate field of enquiry among educational technologists; that is the search for a better basis for advising those whose aims go beyond the transfer of cognitive knowledge (Open University, 1978). The second concern is that colleagues do not at present share their experience of how to cope with the difficulties of implementing one's plans for teaching material. There is a need to collect these working techniques and make

sure that they form part of the content of staff development. A third concern is with the human relationships within course teams. While there has been some research in this area (Open University, 1977), it is still a taboo subject in nearly all our course teams.

The reasons why the Open University adopted team-working so whole-heartedly are probably unique to its situation and have been described elsewhere (Riley, 1976). Despite a growing awareness of some disadvantages of team-working, the Open University continues to design all its courses in this way. One of the reasons for maintaining the time consuming process of group discussion of draft materials is that its value for training new staff is recognised as considerable.

There are some indications that team-working is spreading among other institutions of higher education. It has been tried in many colleges in the last decade in order to plan new courses and found to be popular (Riley, 1975). Retrenchment as student enrolments fall may need further joint rethinking of curricula. Team teaching in the lecture hall or seminar room may become more popular as a way of working, following trends in teaching methods in primary and secondary education. Such a change could be seen as paralleling the enthusiasm for small group work which also began in the schools. Declining numbers of new recruits to teaching in higher education imply increasing difficulties for the traditional staff training courses. Learning from colleagues on the job can be recommended as an alternative to special training courses.

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ON INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEMS DEVELOPERS BEING USEFUL

George L. Geis

During the past twenty years there has been a dramatic growth on college and university campuses in the amount and kind of resources available for the improvement of instruction. Several hundred campus-based centres have been established to assist instructional improvement (Gaff, 1975; Donald and Shore, 1976). There have been three waves or phases in this development: first the audio-visual resource centre, then the instructional systems development groups and most recently faculty development activities.

This paper contrasts the latter two phases. It examines a serious concern that the faculty development "movement" may perpetuate the accessory, adjunctive role of instructional systems technology which has been narrowly defined for it on many campuses. In doing so it may (1) reinforce the "person-blame" view of instructional problem-solving and, (2) deny the campus the benefits of a broad systems approach. An expanded definition of instructional design is illustrated by describing the steps a "performance" technologist would take given the task of developing instructional materials.

The concerns of this paper seem especially timely. At the present time competition for diminished budgets is strong and any non-traditional activities are viewed as luxuries and therefore candidates for extinction. Faculty and instructional development activities will likely be competing for funds and position. This paper explores some issues that need clarification if the two important development activities are to remain strong and to cooperate rather than compete.

SIMILARITIES AND DISTINCTIONS

Instructional systems technology is the result of the confluence of several streams. Behavioural Psychology by the 1950s was ready to propose applications of its model to education. The birthdate of one such application was the publication of B. F. Skinner's (1954) description of programmed instruction. One feature of programmed instruction, the "teaching machine," was a rather simple example of a separate, maturing educational *hardware* technology that included importantly, the computer. The concept of, indeed the very phrase, teaching machines suggested something far beyond adjunctive "audio-visual aids." Concurrently the accumulated experiences of sophisticated training specialists from the military and industry, were being focused on "civilian" educational concerns. The systems approach which developed, for example, weapons design was being applied to training and "school-learning" problems.

Included in the ranks of "educational technologists" were training specialists, psychologists, information systems engineers, computer experts--a whole array of sophisticated, talented people in which traditional education was noticably underrepresented. The movement (like so many innovative movements in education) had not emerged from the discipline of education but had grown up parallel to and somewhat in opposition to the formal system. (Recall that in the 50s and 60s attacks were being made on Education from all sides; another, very different, one came from free-school/no school humanists).

Now importantly, the personnel in the emerging technology of education had little or no commitment to the traditional system, its assumptions, structures, or personnel. Despite repeated protestations that these technologists had no intention of replacing the teacher, it was clear that the teacher at best was seen as an element--an available but not always necessary element--in an instructional system. Instructional improvement activities in higher education typically involved implementing innovations some of which included no direct student-teacher contact, for example, computer-based instruction. Assistance to professors often consisted of thinly disguised attempts to train them to be better instructional technologists rather than better face-to-face teachers. In higher education, especially, the emphasis on instructional development made some sense

since the professor in addition to being a teacher is often the subject matter expert and the curriculum developer (e.g., textbook writer, course designer). No wonder the technologist was not always well received on campus. But more serious than antagonism was basic misunderstanding.

From the outset the perception of the technology of instructional development by many people in education has usually been if not erroneous at least very limited. Instructional specialists have been brought onto most campuses and used by most faculty members in the same way as audio-visual specialists have been. They are seen as cosmeticians who have some up-to-date tricks which can be applied to traditional instruction in order to make it more exciting, more contemporary and, perhaps, more effective.

The misperception is even further from the mark today. The technology has evolved and matured over the past twenty years. The affiliation with media experts to large and comprehensive educational systems. The field has developed toward a broader *performance* technology, its application being especially evident in industrial "training." Consequently, increasing attention in the field is paid to the organizational variables which are critical in developing and maintaining requisite behaviours in the learner. (As a result the "client" is more frequently an administrator, e.g., dean or vice-president, than an individual faculty member; the target is likely to be a whole program rather than a simple course.)

Faculty Development offers some dramatic contrasts to instructional systems technology. "Faculty Development" is defined quite differently by different authors. Crow, *et al.*, (1976) probably would place all the instructional and teaching activities described here under that single title and add numerous other staff development activities. Bergquist and Phillips (1977) originally subsumed instructional, personal, and organizational development under "Faculty Development." Then they restructured their model to integrate the three types and to respond to Jerry Gaff's somewhat different approach. Gaff (1975) substitutes "faculty" for "personal" development and sets apart "instructional development thus more closely approximating the distinction being made in this paper.

A comparison of the two terms suggests a basic difference in orientation. One set of activities is aimed at faculty members and offers resources for their development (in all of their many roles, only one of which is "teacher.") The other has as its target *instruction*, one component of which is the professor (who may contribute as face-to-face teacher, curriculum designer, subject matter expert, evaluator, etc.) The original commitment, then, is quite different in the two cases. Implied is the further degree of commitment to the existing system. Faculty developers as a whole support and seek to enhance the existing instructional system, including, importantly, the professor as the key medium of instruction. Instructional systems specialists, on the other hand, feel free to devise what they see as the most appropriate, effective, economical system; that system may be teacher-free (as, say, a programmed textbook). There is, then what might be called a "conservative/radical" axis on which these two groups would be placed at different points.

As already suggested, the faculty developer's activities attempt to encompass the whole person: professor as reseacher, teacher, administrator, scholar, learner, etc. The instructional technologist's eye is primarily if not solely on the campus' teaching function and on *all* of the components (not just the professor) involved in carrying out that function.

There are other major differences. The implicit commitment of most faculty developers is to the traditional *structure roles* of the college and university. At least at the university the professorial staff has been almost isomorphic with the institution itself. Students, government agencies and even boards of governors either have had little say in the governance of the university or have been loathe to use the power to contradict the faculty. It appears that instructional designers have often viewed the university as an industrial organization: the administration as management, the faculty as employees, the students as consumers. Does either model accurately describe the current (or emerging) state of higher education? Regardless of one's answer it should be recognized that the two different approaches add to the distinction between faculty and instructional development.

The faculty developer is likely to hold the same teaching/learning model as most professors. Namely: teaching is

an attempt to transfer some part of a body of knowledge from expert to novice; the task is one of information transmission and the focus is on the subject matter of the discipline. With a background in behavioural psychology, the instructional systems technologist is more likely to view teaching as a behavioural change activity with the emphasis being not on "content" but upon "performance," content-in-action, as it were. As just suggested the academic history of the personnel in each area is usually quite different: faculty developers drawn from the faculty itself with various "discipline" backgrounds; technologists sometimes with a degree in psychology or, possibly, education; sometimes with little previous connection with academia.

To some extent each area has its own theoretical base, strategies, and vocabulary. The technology has close ties with behavioural psychology, human learning and systems analysis. Its orientation is experimental and objective. The faculty developer usually claims no theoretical ties, although he or she may draw on humanistic psychology and group dynamics. The underlying differences in approach and attitude being described here are neatly described by Axlerod (1973):

. . .there is a profound difference between the way the typical university professor speculates about the nature of the university and how students learn, and the way the scholar in the field of higher education or learning theory approaches the subject. It is a difference in the theoretical framework that governs the two approaches--in essence, the difference between the spirit that informs folklore and the spirit that characterizes science.

These differences can be recognized as real without necessarily assigning superior value to one approach or the other.

Technologists tend to be product or outcome directed, faculty developers process-oriented.

The former have struggled to cohese and form a recognized, visible discipline with its own professional organization and journals; the latter have (sometimes shyly) admitted faculty development as one of their academic activities.

Instructional technologists as a group firmly (if uncomfortably) have kept one foot in the academic world and the other outside it (in industrial and military training.) Faculty developers are recognized members of the academic community and are apparently happy with the commitment to the college or university community.

But enough of differences--what of the similarities? There are many. Indeed, this attempt at forming a better discrimination would not be necessary if there were not the basis for easy generalization and the blurring of distinctions. Consequently only a brief glance need be made at the similarities.

Despite the distinctly different purposes and "client groups" stated above, the technologist as well as the faculty developer has addressed himself much of the time to individual faculty members and has often attempted to assist them in improving face-to-face classroom teaching; conversely, especially recently as demonstrated by other papers in this conference, the faculty developer has become more involved with broader systems problems (e.g., the reward structure for teaching). Both groups are concerned, of course, with generating and learning about new teaching techniques and educational innovations. In addition, both groups are engaged in the business of change and therefore have vested interest in studies on the change process, dissemination, implementation of new ideas, and the techniques of, as well as the resistances to, change.

Yet despite some similarities, the two groups can serve different purposes, meet different needs on campuses, especially at a time when most colleges and universities are under extreme pressures to change and improve. Both faculty development and instructional systems technology are needed on the campus. Faculty development at this time requires little defence. It is popular. It represents at least a supportive gesture on the part of administrators in a time when the morale of many faculty members is low. It acts as a rallying point for the faculty as it attempts to resist increasing internal and external pressures. It offers real opportunities to faculty members to grow, increase their knowledge, and improve their skills. By contrast the instructional systems technology, never uniformly popular among faculty

members, is often seen as a foreign and irritating body arbitrarily introduced onto the campus, a radical and threatening presence. Clearly it is on weaker ground.

The following case is made for it in terms of two arguments: the first proposes that there is a critical deficiency in the faculty development model; the second, attempts to illustrate the strength of a systems approach, occasionally using as an example its application to faculty development itself.

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT AND "PERSON-BLAME"

By its very name, faculty development focuses attention upon the faculty as the target group for change and improvement. If it becomes the *sole* change strategy on a campus the implication is, boldy stated, that the major problems currently facing Higher Education lie primarily with the Faculty and can be overcome by changing the Faculty.

Educational institutions faced with increasing demands to change and to adjust to decreased enrollments, reduced budgets, slashed research funds, new student populations, and increasing unionism among the faculty, may gratefully accept the model proposed by Faculty Development and the locus of blame and responsibility it implies. Such a narrow focus is unfair. Also it is not likely to lead to the solution of major problems. To understand why this is so, one must look more closely at the "person-blame" approach.

The March 1973 *American Psychologist* included an article entitled, "On Being Useful: The Nature and Consequences of Psychological Research on Social Problems" (Caplan and Nelson, 1973). Despite an orientation toward societal problems and its focus on the psychologist as change agent, the article, with a few alterations could have as well been written about educational institutions and the change agents working in them.

The authors, discussing the behaviours of stating problems and seeking solutions, began by distinguishing between those problem statements which contain explicit or implicit *person-blame* and those in which problems are seen as a function of *situational* variables.

(By) "person-blame" causal attribution bias in psychological research on social problems. . .we mean the tendency to hold individuals responsible for their problems (p. 199).

. . .What is done about a problem depends on how it is defined. The way a social problem is defined determines the attempts at remediation--or even whether such attempts will be made--by suggesting both the foci and the *techniques* of intervention and by ruling out alternative possibilities (p. 200).

Thus, where person-centered interpretations provide the foundation on which corrective intervention is based, little need be done about external factors since they would presumably be of lesser or no etiological significance in the determination of such behaviour (p. 200).

If, on the other had, explanations are *situation-centred* . . .efforts toward corrective treatment would logically have a *system-change* orientation. . .thus, existing physical, social, or economic arrangements, not individual psyches, would be the targets for change (p. 201).

Whether the social problem to be attacked is delinquency, mental health, drug abuse, unemployment, ghetto riots, or whatever, the significance of the defining process is the same: *the action (or inaction) taken will depend largely on whether causes are seen as residing within individuals or in the environment* (p. 201).

Such definitions, once legitimated and acted upon, tend to define the problem indefinitely, irrespective of their validity. Once in effect, they resist replacement by other definitions. Program administrators and professional change agents develop a vested interest in maintaining established definitions, since their very jobs, status, power, and the employment of subordinates may depend upon those definitions being accepted as correct (p. 201).

Consider the parallel to activities designed to improve instruction. If the responsibility for instructional improvement (*and* innovation *and* expansion to new markets) is assigned solely to the professor, the rest of the system is freed of that responsibility and of the need to change. The ills of higher education can be laid at the doorsteps of the teaching staff.

Surely professors ought to accept responsibility for their teaching performances, and many can improve their teaching. However, moving the focus entirely away from the whole institution blinds us to organizational variables. Some of those variables are critical ones in effecting improvement. Some organizational variables have direct bearing on the professor's own efforts to improve his teaching. For example, the often cited structure of rewards for teaching (contrasted with: for research) is an institutional variable. It is naive, even cruel, to insist upon teachers improving their performances while hugely rewarding incompatible activities.

Instructional Systems Technology can contribute to the solution of problems in Higher Education by bringing a broader, system view to the explication and solution of educational problems. Indeed, the technology's main contribution may be in defining problems and directing attention to the real causes of the problems rather than to symptoms. In addition, it offers an orderly, systematic approach to problem-solving. The remainder of the paper examines the principles of the technology, occasionally illustrating them with applications to the specific problem of designing problems for Faculty Development.

SOLVING PROBLEMS USING THE INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEMS TECHNOLOGY

Front end analysis. The first step in developing any behavioural change strategy is to determine whether or not some change is needed. Variously called front end analysis, needs analysis, or discrepancy analysis, this essential activity in part defines the actions to be taken later on. (And yet it is the step that is least attended to; and the one in which the assistance of instructional developers is least often sought.)

It consists of defining what effects or consequences the system under study is supposed to have and then determining what the gap is between this ideal state and the reality. For example, one might make explicit (in terms of statements of objectives or evaluation items) what the goals, or outcome, of an educational course or program should be and then examine the data to determine

what actually occurs when students undergo the instructional treatment.

As part of a faculty development team, the instructional designers would first ask for evidence of what *is not* happening in the system that should happen, or what *is* happening in the system that should not happen. Instead of accepting that this analysis has already been carried out when somebody (a dean, a chairman, or an individual faculty member) says that instruction must be improved, the instructional developer would ask to examine the evidence--the raw data, so to speak. If such evidence proves deficient, or indeed, is non-existent, data-gathering must be undertaken before going on. If not, materials are likely to be designed and workshops developed for faculty members whose implied defects are poorly defined or may not actually exist.

Before or during problem explication it is premature for the technologist to commit himself* to "Faculty Development" activities. Suggesting at the outset that the only way to improve instruction is to develop better instructional skills in the teacher drastically curtails the exploration of the problem and the generation of possible solutions. A front end analysis must be totally neutral with regard to possible solutions.

The front end analysis may be applied at any level: for example, a course, a program or, globally, the output of a large educational system such as a college or university. More specifically: given the statement that an undergraduate Biology course is defective in some way, the analyst would first ask for a specification of deficiencies in terms of student performances; pursuing the answer to that question he would ask for demonstrations that such deficiencies had important consequences when students were moved on to other milieus, for example, graduate or medical schools. This exercise in explication is usually difficult; most people in education are not used to answering such questions with precision and they may not

*"He," etc., *is used for convenience's sake; it should be noted, however, that the field of educational technology from its inception has attracted and respected many women and that its most prominent citizens probably include equal numbers of males and females.*

have the techniques needed to generate the answers. Furthermore some are likely to feel threatened by this politically sensitive activity. Nevertheless it does seem illogical to start making instruction *better* if we do not know the answer to the question: better than what? And: how can we know what to work on to improve if we do not know what needs improving?

When a professor, rather than a course, is the object of analysis the same approach can be used. But again it should be stressed that from an instructional designer's point of view it would be premature to "target" the professor at the outset; i.e., other aspects of the course or programs may well be responsible for deficiencies.

Developing evaluation criteria and methods. Front end analysis leads readily into specification of "output," usually stated in quantitative but sometimes in qualitative terms. The aforementioned gap between the expected and obtained results of an educational venture implies some such clear statement of outcomes. During or immediately after front end analysis those statements would be translated into methods of observation and measurement and into criteria for judging the information obtained (i.e., evaluating the "gap"). Methods might include interviewing, using tests or questionnaires, counting and classifying cases, observing classes, seeking expert judgment on quality, etc. The evaluation strategy that is worked out at this point will serve as a guide as the later steps in the procedure are undertaken. The data obtained can confirm or cast doubt upon the original front end analysis. And at this step the standards are set against which the final products or outcomes (e.g., some instructional materials) can be judged.

Controlling variables. Suppose that a discrepancy has been found between what is desired and what is actually occurring. Such a discrepancy might be, for example, in terms of the high number of failures of students in a course, few students going on to graduate work in a program designed as a "feeder" to graduate school, or students showing deficits in later courses for which the program under observation is presumably the prerequisite. (Since front end analysis is generalizable to most problems in

faculty and educational development the deficits under study might as well be a paucity of research papers produced by a professor or a group of professors, a failure of the college to attract enough students, or the lack of space utilization equally over all available hours). The next step is to discover the most important factors responsible for the deficit.

Human performance technology has contributed an interesting and useful distinction between so-called *performance problems* and *learning deficits*. Suppose that a student at the end of a course or sometime afterwards does not perform in the way he was taught to perform. Clearly it could be because he did not actually learn the performance desired. *Or*, the current controlling situation may not be eliciting or supporting the learned behaviour. The first case would be a learning deficit; the second would be a performance deficit.

In a Nursing program, for example, teachers complained that students showed deficits in two areas:

(1) Carrying out the hospital prescribed routines and sequences which they had been taught to perform in the classroom;

(2) In correctly carrying out medication orders when medication was prescribed in one form, e.g., liquid, and had to be delivered in another form, e.g., solids.

Observation and analysis showed that in the first case the deficit clearly was not due to a learning defect. Student nurses could recite the catechism of hospital routine; but supervisory personnel and their peers on the ward in most cases did not maintain the prescribed behaviours of the new nurses; some supervisors and "old-timers" joshed the student nurses for carrying out routines that were so obviously learned in the classroom. The student nurse was analogous to the "rate buster" in the factory who soon normalizes his behaviour under peer pressure regardless of the high rates that might have been developed during training.

But the second deficit in the nurses turned out *not* to be a performance deficit, at least not totally so. While

some errors were made in figuring medication dosages because of time pressures, most of them were due to the fact that many of the students simply did not have the arithmetical skills to transform the doctor's orders from one form of the drug into the dosage that would be appropriate for a different form: a learning deficit.

The distinction is critically important. It is frustrating and uneconomical to try to erase a performance deficit by increasing the amount of teaching delivered previous to the performance. And yet there are pressures to identify performance deficits incorrectly as learning deficits. For instance, in the matter of faculty development, it is comparatively easy for the administration to suggest that professors lack certain instructional skills and that the instruction in the university would be improved if professors acquired those skills. It is a good deal harder (and much more threatening, e.g., to the administration) to suggest that the reward systems in the university be changed so that good teaching is adequately compensated for. Yet this environmental maintenance may be a *sine qua non* without which any training program becomes an empty exercise.

Dr. Tom Gilbert, an innovative thinker in the field of performance analysis, in his new book on the subject (Gilbert, 1978) stresses once again that too often people "can do but won't do." And he offers dramatic examples of how the performance technologist can contribute powerfully by identifying the controlling variables and insisting that if those variables do not point to an instructional program, actions should be taken in the other parts of the environment to provide support for, and encouragement for, the desired behaviours. One can see that, given this approach, the performance technologist straddles both areas of faculty and organizational development since the variables controlling performance often lie at the institutional level.

For the purpose of continuing the description of the process, suppose that analysis of a specific cast of this point has demonstrated that the gap between the desired and actual outcomes of the system under study *is* a learning deficit and very well might be narrowed through some instructional activities or improvement.

Finer problem explication. The next task would be to determine more precisely what is contributing to the learning deficit. Such an analysis might reveal, for example, that learning deficits are traceable to students' study skills, or that the medium of instruction does not interact well with the students' learning styles, or that the organization of the course is so poor and confused that students are unable to determine the emphases and to plan their study accordingly. The more finely the problem is specified and the better the controlling variables are described, the more likely it is an effective solution can be developed.

"Targeting." When problems have been sufficiently explicated it is time to look at the elements of the system which are currently aimed at producing the expected output and to pinpoint those that are apparently defective in doing so. If one finds a *learning* deficit he is likely to focus on the teacher as a major variable, but alternative components of instruction should not be ignored.

Suppose it turns out that the major reason the instructional system fails to produce desired accomplishments in the students who pass through it is because of poor preparation for the program by the students: a common problem of *deficient prerequisites*. The professor might be targeted as the medium for remediation. But: small self-instructional units for the students might more be effective; the course might be divided into two sections; the course might be re-designed at a lower level; admission standards or prerequisite tests might be imposed. There is no reason *a priori*, or, during the early stages of analysis, to fix upon one target or one solution path before the problem has been thoroughly explicated, the controlling variables have been identified, and the constraints and resources which determine the array of potential solutions have been made clear. (In making the final decision on the target of the "treatment," weight must be given to such practical factors as cost, time available, political considerations and potential resistance:)

Proposing solutions. The above phrase "array of potential solutions" is too glib, suggesting a sophistication that simply does not as yet exist. It is more likely that a solution will have to be developed than can be selected.

The cumulative documentation of efforts to systematically solve instructional and performance problems is beginning to supply a rich lode of lore if not a neat set of principles. But at this time there is ample room for insights and unique, creative solutions. (One advantage of the systematic process being described is that it can provide documentation of each effort; consequently, every attempt can contribute knowledge to the evolving technology.)

This stage then is characterized by exploration and experimentation. If a training or instructional problem is identified solutions might include texts, workshops, simulation, video-tape feedback, etc. If the solution is directed to a performance problem the technologist would consider possible changes in the reward structure, providing more time for execution of (or preparation for) the task to be carried out, re-assignment of jobs or parts of jobs, etc.

Whatever tentative solution is planned at this point it will be subjected to repeated testing and revision. Ideally the developer (or team) will remain flexible enough to discard or revise the solution on the basis of evidence of its worth and effectiveness.

Analyzing the learner and the learning environment. Concurrently with the development of a solution or strategy, the technologist examines the characteristics of the learners-to-be and the environment in which they will be instructed. Particular environments seem to promote learning of certain types for specific groups of students (see, for example, Gagne, 1970 or Bloom, 1976).

A clear understanding of the kind of learning being encouraged (e.g., skill building) and the critical features of the learner (e.g., reading level, preferred learning style) is invaluable in developing effective instruction. Paradoxically despite the sizeable investment in instruction aimed at professors, almost no research has been undertaken to investigate the characteristics of professors as learners (Geis and Smith, 1979).

Developing instruction. It is only at this point, after a detailed analysis and many tentative decisions have been made that the instructional developer might appropriately engage in those things that he is often perceived as engaging in exclusively: namely, the actual generation

of instructional materials or procedures (e.g., workshops). The previous steps should have pinpointed for the instructional designer the objectives of the instruction, provided him with many examples which he could use in designing and evaluating the instruction, and suggested the mode or the medium of instruction.

In short, he should now be ready to develop instruction because he has determined what his learners need to know, why they need to know it, and how they want to know it.

At this point, that subset of activities many people refer to as "instructional development" can be started. Numerous excellent guides are available which take the reader step-by-step through that process, and there is no need to summarize the procedures here. They range from simplified "how-to" books (e.g., Johnson and Johnson, 1975) to more comprehensive and sophisticated systems-oriented approaches (e.g., Davis, *et al.*, 1974). Some emphasize "software" aspects, such as stating learning objectives, (e.g., Cohen, 1970); others stress media considerations (e.g., Hartley, 1978). Suffice it to say that this contribution by instructional developers to the broader human performance technology is well documented and there is a high degree of agreement, at least about the steps to be followed and the need for systematic pursuit of those steps. However one critical step in the process should be mentioned because it distinguishes it from traditional development routines. Throughout the development process potential "students" provide criticisms and suggestions and the emerging materials are repeatedly tested and revised. This iterative process produces information which, if properly used in revision, can lead to the production of an interesting and effective instructional sequence. Adjustment to the learner, editing, and the diagnosis of flaws or omissions takes place during development when the materials are still in flux and before the "authors" have almost irrevocably committed themselves to a finished product.

The above may have seemed to be a rather long description of the procedures of the instructional systems technology. But it has been necessary in order to illustrate two distinctive features. Earlier the technology and Faculty Development were said to differ with regard to several

attributes: mode of teaching/learning focus, goals, backgrounds of the specialists, etc. The description of the procedure has shown that the technology is both *systematic* and *system-oriented.* It offers an algorithm--a step-by-step procedure--for developing and implementing a plan to change human performance. (See Axelrod, 1973; a systems model of higher education not in the context of the technologists; and Diamond, *et al.*, 1975; a systems model applied to higher education within the technologist's context.)

SUMMARIZING AND LOOKING AHEAD

While they share some common interests, Faculty Development and Instructional Systems Development have quite distinctive features. Of particular note is Faculty Development's focus upon the professor as the target for change and improvement. This implies a "person-blame" model of problem definition which is only one, and often not the most appropriate model. Instructional Systems Developers can offer a different system model of problem definition. The technology of this field has progressed markedly. Consequently it would be incorrect to view the field as a media-oriented, method-oriented adjunct to traditional teaching. The technology can contribute to the solution of various kinds of instructional problems. Specifically it can offer insight and skills to those engaged in Faculty Development as a partisan and colleague. It can assist in clarifying the requirements for effective instructional systems and the roles professors can play in those systems, and in developing the skills and knowledge appropriate to those roles. In the 1980s Higher Education will be facing at least the challenge and probably the necessity to adjust and change. This will not be a matter of colleges and universities merely doing more of what they have done before; nor even of doing it better. In addition, they will have to consider innovative ways both of operating within the institution and of interfacing the institution with the rest of society. New structures for governance, new roles for professors, new curricula and modes of teaching and new potential student populations--all these are likely challenges to be dealt with and, moreover dealt with in the face of declining budgets.

Patricia Cross (1976) expresses almost despair when she relates one experience.

I was talking with a college dean recently who stated emphatically that the first priority of colleges should be the improvement of traditional instruction, and only when that was perfected should colleges spend money to support innovation and experimentation. In the midst of being grateful for his support of the idea that traditional instruction could be improved, I ask myself what General Electric would be if they had decided to perfect the icebox before starting work on the refrigerator. Sure I'm in favour of plugging the leaks and improving the insulation in the old icebox, but not at the expense of supporting the development of refrigerators.

Analogously the college or university may well fail in its attempts to deal with many of the problems currently facing it if it responds to pressures for major, basic institutional changes solely in terms of faculty development. There is a real danger to the institution if it displaces institutional problems, converting them by means of a person-blame model to problems of individual faculty improvement. To do so will divert attention from system problems while for the moment appearing to support worthwhile development activities. The contribution of Faculty Development can be real and important but it must not be viewed as the sole (or even best) means of solving many institutional problems.

The institution may fail also if it persists in viewing instructional development activities solely as cosmetic applications of a technology designed to increase the effectiveness and attractiveness of an otherwise unchanged model of teaching.

The Instructional Systems Technology can help develop Higher Education's responses to the pressures of the 80s--not merely adjusting, retrenching responses but innovative, creative ones. At one level it can, in cooperation with Faculty Developers, aid professors in doing better that which they already do *and* in acquiring new skills (required, for example, in dealing with distance and adult learners). More than this, though, it can offer a campus new learning options and keep it

current with new approaches. Perhaps most importantly, in the light of "systems" analysts becoming increasingly prominent on campuses in matters of management and finance, it can offer the same sort of technology for use in dealing with teaching/learning concerns.

A comprehensive plan for the 1980s designed to assist the campus in meeting the inescapable challenges must include both faculty Development and Instructional Technology resources.

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STAFF IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT

John R. Sharpham

INTRODUCTION

The growth in faculty development in the United States in colleges and universities over the last five years has added a new group of experts to the field of education; or perhaps it is more accurate to say that it has underlined the existence of these experts or specialists. These people are specialist professionals in higher education who are concerned primarily with improving teaching on college and university campuses. They are teachers of teachers but in a particular and peculiar way. They function not so much as members of a college of education might in preparing future teachers for a teaching career, but rather as specialists in a college of continuing education might, offering extension courses (or more accurately, extension experiences) for teachers in the field. In most cases their clients, the teachers on campus, do not always see the need to be involved in these experiences.

If the term faculty development is not new, the emphasis on it as a field (it cannot yet be called a discipline) certainly is and there are very few real professionals specializing in the field. As Gaff (1975) has pointed out, ". . .there are few persons who are competent by virtue of their training and experience to help their faculty colleagues improve the quality of their teaching." There are people who have concentrated on one aspect of development in higher education, on a teaching strategy such as self-paced instruction or computer assisted instruction, or on the evaluation of teaching using student reports, or on aspects of student learning, or on university administration and organization. Of these specialists, very few have worked specifically and over a period of time on the improvement of teaching of faculty at colleges and universities. This has led one writer to conclude: "Just as there are not enough

faculty well trained as teachers, so there are not as many consultants as are needed to assist in the necessary training and pedagogical support of teachers" (The Group for Human Development in Higher Education, 1974).

The growth in faculty development programs across the United States has created a need for people to lead the programs and, with so few professionals, a significant question is raised as to who is to staff such programs. Several publications on faculty development, significant because they were among the first to appear in the U.S. as the movement began and therefore influential, suggest using faculty for faculty development purposes. The *Change* publication, "Faculty Development in a Time of Retrenchment" (1974), states that any group of faculty contain within themselves the ingredients necessary for a successful program:

Given persistent leadership, members of any faculty can go a long way in helping themselves by drawing on their varied experience in teaching, raising questions about particular cases, observing the process of education more clearly as a result, trying new methods and helping one another evaluate the outcomes.

Gaff (1975) points out that most institutions have people with some expertise relevant to faculty development. "There are," he says, "several persons on most campuses, not all of them very visible, who have such experience that can be utilized in instructional improvement programs."

These people are not specialists, but can be used when a need arises for their particular expertise. The *Change* publication goes a step further, however, suggesting faculty take responsibility for faculty development.

Whatever use is made of consultants or a professional staff, the responsibility for making the program work should rest with members of the faculty--some of whom, as associates, would devote part of their regular teaching time to the work of the institute."

KELLOGG ASSOCIATES AT ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY

Involving faculty in this way raises questions as to how they might be used and how effective they might be in working in a faculty development program. This paper will address itself to these questions by examining one program that actively uses faculty. The program will be described, its strengths and weaknesses examined and conclusions will be drawn about using faculty in this way. The program to be used as a model is the Teaching-Learning Center at Illinois State University.

The Center, which has been in operation since January, 1976, is part of the Kellogg Project, a faculty development program on campus, co-sponsored for four years by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation and the University. The Center has a full time director, a staff of Kellogg Associates, a secretary and student help.

There are 1200 faculty at Illinois State University serving 20,000 students. The Associates are drawn from the faculty and are appointed to the Center for at least one year. The Center has six quarter-time positions available for the Associates, the quarter-time being judged as a quarter of the regular teaching load. The positions actually provide the equivalent of one and one-half faculty positions for the Center. At the same time, the positions are on a released-time basis, enabling the departments to be reimbursed fully for the release of a faculty member to serve as an Associate with the Center.

In the first three years, the Associates have come from each of the five colleges on campus (Arts and Sciences, Education, Applied Science and Technology, Fine Arts and Business). In the first year, two held half-time appointments, two held quarter-time appointments; in the second and third years, one half-time position was used and the other positions were quarter-time. The use of Associates in this part-time way inevitably means that they are teaching within their own departments or discipline areas while they serve as Kellogg Associates. In all cases but one, these areas have not related directly to the improvement of teaching in higher education. The Associates have come from the Departments of Accounting; English; Home Economics; Industrial Technology; History; Sociology;

Business Education; Music; Special Education; Geography-Geology; Psychology; Curriculum and Instruction; and Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. Only one of these Associates is a specialist in faculty development.

The Associates have been central to the functioning of the Teaching-Learning Center from the beginning. In the original proposal to the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, their function was tied closely to the whole operation. This is reflected in the three primary responsibilities of the director described for operating the Center. He was to:

. . .(1) provide appropriate consultation and experiences for faculty members who desire the services of the Center to improve instruction; (2) identify qualified senior faculty members who can serve as "mentors" to work with faculty members who seek Center services; and (3) provide instructional improvement workshops and clinics utilizing off-campus consultants and on-campus personnel dealing with specific instructional problem areas (Kellogg Project at Illinois State University, 1976).

The use of the word "mentor" clearly identifies the kind of role expected of the Associate and the type of person he or she would be. The following criteria were used for the selection of the Associates for the first year:

(1) The Associates should be interested in, enthusiastic about and involved in effective teaching at Illinois State University; (2) they must have the ability to assist in the development of a conceptual basis for operating the Center which would set it in the context of the University and provide a basis for ongoing evaluation of Center activities; (3) at least one of the Associates would need to be a person who had been associated with the institution and faculty for some time, who understood the rapid growth changes of the institution over the last ten to fifteen years, and who had demonstrated leadership in innovative teaching during this period; (4) one Associate would need to be sensitive to faculty needs and able to assist faculty in developing self-evaluation techniques for teaching and teaching objectives; (5) at least one of the Associates would need to understand the technological support systems as well, and be able to help the rest of the staff, as well as the faculty, see the

potential of such resources for effective teaching; (6) all would need to be persons who would be willing to work together as a team, sharing and cooperating in a new, and in many ways unknown venture. (Kellogg Project at Illinois State University, 1976).

These criteria have been modified slightly in the last two years though, substantially, the criteria remain the same. An Associate must have a public commitment to effective teaching, have demonstrated excellence in teaching, must be a willing team member and must be able to communicate well with his colleagues. In the third year, two Associates were chosen to work more specifically in meeting teaching needs within their departments. In their case, commitment to these department needs was judged to be of first importance; a public commitment, which might involve them working with the general university faculty, was judged to be secondary.

It is clear that selection of the Associates is not determined by their expertise in faculty development. In the first year, only one member of the staff had such expertise. Other criteria are deemed to be important, particularly criteria relating to the context of the program within the university setting.

The Associates perform a number of different functions for the program. A significant ongoing contribution they make is to the planning of the operation. They have been responsible, with the director, for establishing long-range goals and objectives for the Teaching-Learning Center, for developing a conceptual basis for its operation and for writing a comprehensive evaluation document on its operation. They have been involved in planning and facilitating over forty workshops for the faculty on teaching strategies, long-term planning, curriculum development, the evaluation of teaching and developing a sense of a teaching community. They have worked with individual faculty members on problem areas in teaching and interviewed a number of faculty about teaching. Each Associate has also pursued some area of particular interest to him or her that related to teaching, e.g., a History professor organized a series of workshops on using the library as a teaching resource; a Sociology professor who had developed a specific approach to teaching large groups ran a workshop on large group instruction.

Associates have attended meetings and workshops about faculty development off-campus and several have given papers about their work with the Center. Over 500 faculty have participated in activities sponsored by the Center or received direct assistance from Center staff. These figures reflect the energy and drive of the staff in involving members of the faculty in Center activities and do underline the commitment the staff have to the Center.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

Using faculty in the development program, acknowledging that they are not specialists in faculty development, does provide a number of advantages. The Teaching-Learning Center immediately is involved with people who are performing the usual faculty roles within the University, teaching, writing, research, committee work, student advising and the like. It is being run by colleagues who are known to members of the faculty in roles other than the improvement of teaching. They are not seen to be experts in teaching nor seen as administrators; and, in the present climate of many institutions in the U.S., this is important. As teaching is tied so closely to professional status--in many places, teaching is evaluated to determine decisions on promotion, tenure and salary--any program that works to improve teaching is vulnerable. The more autonomous it is and the closer it is to the faculty, the better is its chance for success. In such a climate there is a distinct advantage in having a program that involves faculty at the colleague level.

In the first year of the Teaching-Learning Center, many rumors circulated about its purpose. There were fears that it was a new arm of the administration to punish poor teaching or that it would single out and name poor teachers on campus. Some chairpersons saw it initially as a place to which bad teachers could be referred. Some faculty resented the notion that they might need help with their teaching. There was a general negative feeling about its purpose and function. The appointment of the Kellogg Associates helped dispel some of the fears, for the Associates lent their credibility as faculty members to the Center. There was an immediate faculty stake in its operation and possible future directions.

There may be another advantage in not having acknowledged experts in a program; many faculty believe themselves to be already good to very good teachers. The formation of a teaching improvement program may seem to suggest that faculty need improving because they are inferior teachers and that, plus the general academic antipathy for anything expert, may isolate the program. Working with colleagues allows possibilities for change to be explored rather than solutions to be imposed and does not involve the threat that using an expert might.

There is, of course, a concomitant disadvantage that not being experts in faculty development the Associates may not satisfy the demands of the faculty who request expert advice. At Illinois State University the use of Associates has been generally acceptable to the faculty. Experts have been called in from outside the University through the Center, but the more constant demand has not been for expert assistance so much as it has been for discussion with and advice from colleagues. After such discussion and advice, specific expert help may be sought and is provided through the Center, using, as a rule, experts from outside the University.

Another advantage in using faculty members in a faculty development program is that they know the institution and can respond to its particular structure and operation. Teaching is such a sensitive issue in most institutions of higher education that any discussion of it beyond a most general level is fraught with difficulty and, if not danger, then certainly tension. A knowledge of this tension in the different areas of the university is very important, for in its initial stages particularly, a teaching improvement program has little margin for failure--one blunder may well close its doors. A staff drawn from across campus provides a good barometer for responses to any planned activities and for pinpointing future actions. A cross section of the staff knowledgeable about this past and demonstrably dedicated to the institution's future because of past involvements can lend credibility to the program and guide its activities away from lost causes, acknowledged mine-fields and clever booby traps.

Another possible advantage in using non-expert faculty members as staff relates to the nature of the institution and

faculty attitude towards experts in education. As Mathis (1978) has pointed out, "the most frequent source of staff for teaching improvement agencies are the disciplines of education and psychology," and yet such disciplines have acceptability problems within an institution like Illinois State University.

The University is like a number of institutions throughout the country that changed from small, single purpose teachers' colleges to large, multi-purpose universities in the 1950s and 1960s. In such institutions, there is still a lingering distrust and antipathy by many faculty for anything to do with the process of education. As the institutions changed their focus many faculty tried to shake off the old teachers' college image and anything that smacked of teacher education. For many faculty, the School of Education has low credibility and they do not wish to be instructed about teaching by experts from that area.

A similar problem can confront the psychologist. "Psychologists particularly suffer a credibility gap in their relationships with other disciplines in which consultant help for improving teaching may be needed. This is especially true of the relationship between psychology and the humanities and arts" (Mathis, 1978).

A teaching improvement program is a service for the faculty and should try to reach as many faculty as possible. By selecting its staff from a broad set of disciplines, it may lessen the concern faculty might have in seeking its assistance. Institutions like Illinois State University might benefit by having faculty development programs that are not staffed exclusively by experts in education.

It would be unwise to exclude experts altogether and, in fact, the Teaching-Learning Center at Illinois State has faculty from the School of Education and will use a psychologist this year. However, the majority of Associates have not been experts in faculty development and this fact may have broadened the kinds of requests and responses the Center has received.

Not being able to use experts is itself a disadvantage for it limits the depth of assistance that can be offered. Some input from experts is essential for it provides a

basis of education for the rest of the staff as well as a body of conceptual knowledge for running the program. A balanced approach would use some faculty from education and psychology with faculty from other disciplines on campus.

At Illinois State University the Kellogg Associates have been appointed for one year and replaced with new Associates in the next year (though some attempt has been made to carry over one Associate each year to provide continuity in the program). At the end of the funding phase (four years) a core of faculty (eighteen to twenty faculty) will exist on campus who have worked as faculty developers. They have had on-the-job training and have dealt with significant issues that develop in running a faculty development program. They presumably carry this experience back to their college and department and could be called on to give leadership there should it be required. They also provide a stronger link between the Center, its functions and their own department.

A disadvantage, that is only now becoming apparent, is that some faculty who serve the university through the program may gain very little in terms of their own professional status within their teaching discipline. In two instances, faculty who had served as Associates were advised not to continue for a second year if they wished to be considered from promotion or tenure. Their service in the Center was hurting them, in the eyes of their colleagues, in the area of scholarship. Until teaching, and work associated with teaching, is put on the same level as other professional activities, the faculty who are to be used as staff may have to be drawn only from tenured and high ranking faculty. This is a limitation for the program, but a safeguard for faculty who do not seek a career in faculty development.

As the Associates work with the Center for only one year, they do not have a long term commitment to the activities of the Center--they tend to see it only in terms of their work for the year. They do not have a professional career commitment to faculty development nor can they be expected to see its long-range implications or take a broad view of the field. It is difficult for the part-time staff to fully grasp the conceptual basis for the program or place

day-to-day activities within the overall context of the program. As Associates change each year, the experiences of previous years have to be given to them as information rather than as lived-through experiences. Also new Associates have to be brought up to date with the Center and its operations and this can take quite some time, particularly when past and completed activities have to be explained and sometimes defended. The lack of continuity and the yearly change-over can be a problem, particularly with activities that spread beyond the working life of one group of Associates. The advantage of a new, energetic team is balanced by the disadvantage of their newness.

The major disadvantage in using non-experts is the most obvious one--they are not experts in the field of teaching in higher education. This is a severe limitation for a program when it is called on to provide expert counsel or when it is needed to give in-depth knowledge of the field. Yet it is not a limitation that need restrict the program unduly for very few of the issues that will be raised about the improvement of teaching have been solved to the satisfaction of the experts in the field. While it is true that a non-expert will not have the depth of knowledge about a particular area, he or she will probably be able to cope effectively with practical aspects of the situation sufficiently to handle the immediate problem.

The danger lies in the continued use of non-experts as a sufficient way to operate the program. An annual turnover of non-experts who are not committed to long-term self-development in the field keeps the program operating at a shallow level. There will be no building of knowledge about the program for it to develop effectively and a specialist must be involved who has a long-term commitment to the program. This person can properly assume a long-term role in planning activities and in determining the roles the non-experts will play. This person, and possibly other experts, should also be encouraged to explore research into teaching improvement in higher education as part of the program's activities. Such research can involve the non-experts but it is more properly the province of the specialists. The research should relate directly to the work of the program; that is, it should have a direct bearing on the activities of the non-experts. A program that does not engage in research on effective teaching is severely limiting itself.

THE FUTURE

As higher education moves into the 1980s, it moves into a period of uncertainty and probable crisis. The faculty will be less mobile and older, there will be changing student demands on the faculty and on the curriculum, and there will be a greater external demand for accountability of teaching and learning. It is possible that in such a climate faculty development programs may become very important. Before they can meet this future opportunity, most programs have to: (1) become institutionalized, (2) operate at a relatively inexpensive level, and (3) demonstrate success with faculty.

Many programs in the U.S. at the present time are peripheral to the functions of their institution. They have been introduced through the administration rather than by a demand from faculty; they are often supported by "soft" or grant money; they have been in operation only a short while and have short initial-life expectancy.* The Teaching-Learning Center at Illinois State is co-sponsored by the University and a grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation in support of a proposal written by the Dean of Arts and Sciences. The Center has an initial life period of four years.

To become institutionalized, programs have to have faculty support as well as backing from administration. Faculty resent money being spent on "frill" activities, especially at a time when universities and colleges are facing heavy budget cuts. Added to this is the suspicion and concern created by any program that addresses itself to the improvement of teaching at a time when teaching is one source of information for decisions on the professional future of faculty. By having faculty from all areas of campus associated directly with its activities, a program can begin to allay doubts and demonstrate, using the

There are several programs in operation in the United States which have been in operation for some time, including programs at Northwestern University in Illinois, Michigan State University and the University of Michigan. Some of the longer established programs have been supported, in part, by foundation grants.

credibility of its staff, the direction it will take. Using members of the faculty as staff should immediately demonstrate that the program is for the faculty and help build a stake in its success and future.

The use of faculty in a teaching-improvement program need not be expensive and can be less expensive than bringing in a team of experts from outside the institution. The use of released-time for research is already an accepted practice on most campuses. An institutional commitment to released-time for improving teaching could surely find 1½ to 2 positions a year from across campus for involvement with the program. Such an institutional commitment to excellence in teaching would lend prestige to the positions and encourage faculty to seek them out. A major benefit of such a move for the future is that it institutionalizes the program at the budget level and ties it directly to the teaching of faculty on campus. By rotating the cost among departments, it enables them to make a commitment for themselves, and for the institution, about effective teaching.

At Illinois State University the decision has been taken to continue the Teaching-Learning Center beyond the initial grant period. The total cost of the operation will now be borne by the institution. The Associates will remain an integral part of the Center and it is possible that the colleges will find extra release-time to support even more Associates than at present.

A specific task for the future is to determine how best to use these faculty colleagues. The use of committed faculty to function at the university level will continue as will specific use of some faculty working for their own department. The first four years of the Associates and their activities need to be closely evaluated in planning for the future.

Evaluation of faculty development programs is difficult. The number of workshops and the head-count of faculty participants is only a small part of the answer and, too often, can be a numbers game played to please funding agencies. Numbers tell very little about the long-range impact of the program on teaching and learning. The

success must be tested at the grass-roots level and there is an advantage in having faculty on the staff for they are closely tuned in to their colleagues' needs and strive to meet these needs. Colleagues working for colleagues and having institutional support may be in a good position to address the needs of the faculty and deal with them within the context of the institution. It would seem that this has been the case at Illinois State.

CONCLUSION

Faculty in faculty development is a workable scheme. Although such staff cannot supply the in-depth knowledge of the expert, they can function effectively in a teaching improvement program. Given the difficulties facing higher education in the next decade, the use of faculty in faculty development work may be a wise and beneficial means of making such programs part of academic life in the future.

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IDENTIFYING THE STAFF DEVELOPMENT NEEDS OF ACADEMIC ADMINISTRATORS IN THE 1980s

Harriet Greenaway

THE ROLE OF ADMINISTRATORS

Academic administrators provide support for the academic functions of institutions of higher education. They are not the only people providing support for academics--porters and cooks do that in a more noticeable way--but they are the people who provide the means by which it is possible to have a well-regulated academic institution. Their duty is to ensure that decisions affecting one part are workable in relation to other decisions, and to ensure that decisions are carried out, many of them by administrators. They are involved in assisting the formulation of policy and its execution. Often the policy is implicit which makes the relationship between policy and its execution difficult to see.

There is an important distinction to be made between "the administration" and "the administrators." Moodie and Eustace (1975) help one's comprehension by their use of the term "officials" for the professional full-time administrative staff. In their analysis "the administration" includes "all who administer the affairs" of the institution. Vice-chancellors, directors, presidents, councils, boards of governors and many academics are involved in that function.

This paper is primarily about the staff development needs of the officials. In Britain they are normally professional career administrators although it is only since 1945 that the profession has developed. Since the early 1960s, in particular, there has been an identifiable profession and it is no longer normal for officials to transfer from teaching posts.

However, many members of "the administration" are translated academics. It is usual for vice-chancellors and polytechnic directors to be former academics. They, and

their senior assistants, could be termed "administrative academics." In this sense they may find common ground with their North American colleagues--presidents, vice-presidents and deans--who identify themselves as academic administrators.

One of the important changes in the role of administrators since the international experience of student unrest since 1968 is in academic government. Although universities, particularly in Britain, had internal government based on a form of participation (the community of scholars tradition according to Moodie and Eustace), those participating were strictly limited. In the predecessors of polytechnics the style of government could even be described as autocratic.

An elite style of government can be managed with few support staff. Participative government cannot. Consequently, the extension of participation in academic government to students and junior staff in the late 1960s and early 1970s created a need for a new style of administration. As the circle of decision-makers widened it was less likely that all were of the same kind of mind. The interests, the motives, the knowledge and the experience of academics varied; the administrators had to learn to serve all needs and all political situations. It was the administrators who had to learn to recognize a matter of policy from a jumble of problems, and then had to advise academics how the problems could be solved within the policies the institution had agreed upon. All this was happening while the routine processes, particularly student admissions, were becoming more sophisticated.

In Britain, academic administrators needed to adopt an integrated approach to their work. So far as possible, the tradition of the generalist (idealized in the nineteenth century civil service) has pertained . There have, however, been major changes in fields such as public relations and careers advice, where specialist professionals have become the norm. In contrast to the pre-1960s, no longer is the careers adviser merely the secretary of the appointments board.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT POLICY

Whatever their career pattern it can be argued that the staff development needs of all staff are the same. Staff are appointed to perform tasks which need particular skills and mental approach both of which may be gained by training and experience. Staff need to be able to acquire those skills and attitudes which are specific to their own jobs and institutions.

The objectives can therefore be stated similarly for academics and administrators but, as Greenaway and Harding (1978) have explained:

The greatest difference between non-teaching staff and their academic colleagues' needs is not in identifying objectives but in providing the means for fulfilling them. For instance, it takes longer to perfect many teaching and administrative skills than it does to learn many manual and clerical tasks. Each skill is as important to the role of the members of staff but the time-scale of its achievement differs. As the time-scale varies so does the nature of the training programme.

Perhaps a greater difference is created by the loneliness of teaching compared with the interactive group nature of most non-teaching work. Teaching involves mostly a single teacher meeting a group of students. Non-teaching work normally relies on the performance of various tasks by several people each contributing part of a single activity. The product is identifiable and can usually be measured and assessed. The opportunity for each to learn from the other while actually doing the job is therefore much greater.

Greenaway and Harding's analysis of the growth of staff development policies in Britain showed that there was less attention paid to administrators' needs than those of academics. This pecking order has a further sub-division in that polytechnic administrators have no national staff development body to compare with the official university Administrative Training Committee. Through that agency useful courses are available nationally for new entrants and experienced university administrators. Identification of specific staff development policies and procedures is nevertheless in its infancy. As few institutions--

universities or polytechnics--have any staff who are specifically responsible for staff development of administrative staff; developments which do occur tend to result from the interest and enthusiasm of a few people in key positions. However great their enthusiasm, they normally find that staff development has to take a low priority in competition with their primary functions.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT IN THE 1970s

In the 1970s the most noticeable development needs of non-teaching staff were to acquire skills and to keep them up-to-date. Less noticeable, but as important, was the capacity to identify and respond to the changing needs of institutions. This ability marked a clear distinction between the clerk and the administrator. Administrators in the British style have a professional career in which they normally acquire a position of importance and respect based on their possession of information and presentation of it to decision-making bodies. One of the skills which they, in larger numbers than hitherto, had to demonstrate was their ability to master the mass of information to which they had access and to suggest how it could be used to aid academics to determine their institutions' progress. That progress was occurring in a changing world.

There were two important administrative features of the 1970s which were associated with changes outside institutions' control. The first was the deterioration in the economic climate with its consequent squeeze on resources. In the universities this caused the abandonment of the long-standing quinquennial system of financing. In all types of institutions resource allocation became more complicated and politically more sensitive. Formulae were developed, normally by academics and administrators together. It is usually the administrators who have the important task of calculating the details of formula-based systems and presenting their implications to committees.

The second change was that new institutions regulated themselves, and as the new institutions were in the maintained sector, whose degrees were validated by the Council for National Academic Awards, they became used to working within that body's regulations. University staff were already familiar with the process of formulating their

institutions' own internal legislation; for their polytechnic colleagues this was a new experience. It was the administrators who had to acquire the legalistic skills of acting as constitutional advisers and watchdogs, with loyalty and responsibility to the whole institution.

But all staff with any length of service have worked through a period of change. While the days of expansion may now be seen as an exception rather than the norm, constant change must be regarded as a permanent occurrence. The details of the changes will alter in the future but the fact of an ever-changing situation will probably not. In the 1960s and 1970s the changes have been primarily economic and structureal; in the 1980s we face two quite distinct periods of demographic change.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE 1980s

In 1978 the Department of Education and Science (DES) issued a discussion paper *Higher Education into the 1990s* which presented possible higher education patterns for the 1980s and early 1990s based on projections of known births. The consultation which was encouraged was intended to assist the Government in establishing future higher education policy. The nationwide discussions on the paper focussed people's attention on the likely increase in students of the traditional type from 1978 until 1983, followed by a sharp decline into the 1990s. Most of the views publicly expressed have suggested that there should not be a commensurate increase in the number of institutions or their staff. The implication for administrative staff is therefore that the period of creation of new posts is acknowledged to be over and that much the same people in post now will be in the system in the next ten years. They will get older and the previous opportunities for promotion may not be readily available. Compared with the 1970s the problem will be less how to keep staff up-to-date than how to keep them interested, alert and not frustrated.

One solution may present itself. It is likely that some of the systems in higher education may change. A proposal by the quasi-governmental body, the Schools Council, to replace GCE Advanced level examinations by a two-tier system, Normal and Further levels, as the final school

examinations could have considerable effects on the design of courses and admission systems. Transferability of credit between the Open University and the CNAA may start a move which would revolutionize the British examining and admissions patterns. The latter could so change the nature of record-keeping in British institutions that they would need to operate centralized computer-based systems not unlike those in North America.

Perhaps the biggest changes are likely to come from outside the higher education world. American experience in the late 1970s has shown increasing regulation of institutions by the laws of the land. It is less likely, but not inconceivable, that the race relations position could lead to "affirmative action" being adopted as British policy to ensure that certain under-represented groups were given special admission rights to courses and jobs. Attempts to eliminate "negative discrimination" in admissions procedures exist in the Government Circular 14/78 on admission of overseas students. While the circular is advisory to institutions its advice is based on legislation.

Employment and equal rights legislation have changed drastically in the 1970s. There are more stringent controls and more opportunities for litigious staff to pursue their grievances. Although the average British member of staff appears less likely to resort to law than his--or particularly her--American colleague, there is no reason to suppose that the boredom or frustration caused by lack of mobility will not create the need for such diversion.

Skills in industrial relations, personal and legal, may well become as important as skills with figures and committees have been in the 1970s. Increasing specialisms in matters connected with large institutions, rather than higher education, may grow.

It appears that, until about 1983, academic staff will have their hands full with teaching an increasing number of students. After that date, however (if the DES projections are proved right) there will be a decline in student numbers preceded by worry about the size of the decline. If academic staff become anxious about their job prospects after 1983, they may try to secure positions in other parts of the academic world. It would be a reasonably logical step for academics to develop the

administrative side of their current work--admissions, examinations, committee activity--to such a stage that they could easily become full time officials. But could they make that change?

There are values held by career administrators which relate to the objectivity of their position, to their loyalty to the institution as a whole and the civil service tradition of integrity, which could be said to be part of a professional ethos. The fact that officials will serve the institution, whatever the whims of governments, internal and external, in a consistent fashion, is an important factor contributing to the respect in which administrators, at their best, are held. Perhaps it is this very consistency which is the cause of much of the disaffection which exists the world over between some academics and some administrators. Whether academics could assume these roles would be a matter requiring careful observation.

However, the administrator's fear of being squeezed out by redundant academics may be unfounded due to an increase in professionalism. The establishment of the Conference of University Administrators (CUA) in 1973 was perhaps the first sign of an emergent profession, followed by smaller specialist groupings, particularly in the polytechnics. These could coalesce in the 1980s, first into an integrated polytechnic body, and then into a national higher education administrators association. It may take some time for administrators to recognize each other formally but one of the effects would be to strengthen the identification of their staff development needs. The CUA already has a training committee; the only university and polytechnic administrators' collaborative group (in London) has a staff development group. Concern for staff development has become one of the indicators of a profession.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT IN THE 1980s

It is that concern which perhaps serves to identify academics as teachers rather than economists, lawyers or physicists who happen to teach. Irrespective of the origin of the 1980s administrators, their staff development needs should be accorded the same priority as those

of academics. Some aspects of likely changes in administration have already been mentioned but there are others for which specific plans can be made.

Skills training: Skills training must always be paramount. Without the skills for the job, no member of staff can fulfill his contract with his employer. Technological developments of the same magnitude as the current reliance on photocopiers and pocket calculators could bring changes in the technical skills required of clerks and their senior colleagues. Indeed, one of the skills likely to be required of administrators is the ability to manage their work effectively but inexpensively. The development of effective communication systems without multiple paper copies is a skill needed now.

Job rotation: The need for skills training, although paramount, may become a less important proportion of the staff development activity as turnover of staff slackens. There may be fewer people needing to learn completely new skills. However, as that turnover diminishes, the need for people to experience different forms of work within their current post or institution will grow. Job rotation is an attractive idea to many, especially those who dislike their present job or colleagues. It is less attractive to the person asked to move from a comfortable niche or to the trade unionist defending the right of members to perform only the job to which they were appointed. A major staff development need will therefore be at the attitudinal level, with unions and with staff, to encourage the acceptance of the personal and institutional benefit which derives from change. This will require careful handling, not least in ensuring the those who are not sympathetic to growing unionization accept the fact that it is here to stay and learn to live with it.

Job appraisal: At the same time as the growth of unionization on the part of junior staff has taken place, their senior colleagues have become more aware of the use of formal management techniques such as job appraisal. It is likely that higher education institutions in the 1980s will find that such formal methods of assessing people's work will become necessary in order to enable internal movement, lateral or on promotion, to take place.

This is merely one aspect of the identification of staff development needs which will require considerable training for those charged with the responsibility of managers. In higher education there is not the clear distinction between managers and workers which is possible in industry, so one attitudinal change will be in the recognition by staff of their various staffing responsibilities.

Secondment: Job rotation within the institution is only one form of change of duties. Job rotation outside the institution usually takes the form of exchange or secondment. This has not yet become a frequent practice, nor has the academic's opportunity for sabbatical leave been accorded to many administrators. At senior levels it is likely that staff will derive benefit from a period away from the institution for refreshment and regeneration of ideas while doing tasks quite different from normal. These tasks may take the form of further study of a formal nature or they could be investigations of practice elsewhere. If there is to be little interchange of staff due to economic and demographic constraints, there must be interchange of ideas and experience through other means.

Changes in decision-making responsibilities: In the 1970s interchange of ideas has been an important feature in decision-making systems. Committees have practically replaced individual responsibility in many spheres but, for all their merits, committees are expensive in the use of academics' time. For the next five years academics' time will be at a premium as the demographic hump provides more students. This may provoke a change in the style of decision-making which would also respond to the complaint that too much time is spent in committees. The pendulum which swung away from individuals or small cliques to committees of ever increasing size in the 1970s may revert to a central position. If academics are prepared to confine themselves to making policy, and trust administrators to implement it, a great saving of time could be achieved.

The staff development need for administrators would therefore be in the ability to present topics for policy decisions in such a way that all the ramifications were considered at one time. This would require a much deeper understanding of how the institution worked than it now required in some institutions.

Decision-making by committees allows individuals to hide behind committee decisions; a feature which applies both to members and officers of committees. A reversion to more individual responsibility could lead to changes in management styles. While committees have the advantage to openness and acceptability of the process of decision-making, individual responsibility carries the duty to ensure acceptability by different means. Informal, rather than formal, methods of consultation may become the norm. Formal training in management techniques for middle and senior administrators may become necessary to enable them to play a useful part in acting as members of groups which are less formal in style than many committees but which may serve many of the same roles of expressing and illuminating opinions.

This could enhance the professional identity of administrators but it could lead to less feeling of integration between acadmic and administrative staff. While competence in the administrative role is to be encouraged, it must not be forgotten that these are administrators in academic institutions. Every effort must therefore be made to ensure that academic administrators can take part in the development of academic ideas and practice.

International professional identity: In Europe, many aspects of life are discussed, and even regulated by the various organs of the European Communities which the United Kingdom joined in 1973. In 1978, the bureaucratic arm--the Commission of the European Communities--issued a paper which considered the manner in which co-operation between higher education administrators in Community countries could be achieved. There is a major staff development theme in its working paper. Interchange of ideas is a normal feature of meetings of academics, the community of scholars being the foundation of academic thinking. It may be that supra-national efforts at encouraging a community of administrators will have a beneficial effect on the identification of administrators' roles and on the achievement of their needs and those of their institutions.

CONCLUSION

The most important conclusion from all this speculation is that the staff development needs of administrators in the

1980s will be a logical progression from the 1970s position. While the higher education system may produce or respond to changes, the primary need in administrators will still be flexibility of attitude. This feature, which has dominated the 1970s, results from the need constantly to respond and adapt to changes in the needs of the institution. For administrators, far more than for academics, the profession to which they belong is indistinguishable from the totality of the institutions. Without the institutions, no academic administrators would exist. Consequently, institutional change affects administrators directly.

The second conclusion is a negative one, but one worth noting. At no point in this paper has it been necessary to relate the staff development of administrators to specific qualifications. The nature of academic administration in the United Kingdom is based far more on intellectual qualities and experience than it is on formal vocational qualifications. Although postgraduate courses in educational administration exist, it is unlikely that British administrators will require certification in order to practise their skills. Indeed, one might say "practise their art," for perhaps that term best of all defies analysis but describes the best flexibility of all.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMPETENCE: ADMINISTRATIVE NEEDS AND TRAINING GOALS IN AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION*

Robert A. Scott

INTRODUCTION

The growth of collegiate administration, especially in middle-management positions, has been discussed many times (Bess and Lodahl, 1969; Brown, 1969; Knapp, 1969; Baldridge, *et al.*, 1978; Scott, 1978c). In the short span of time from the mid-1960s to the early 1970s, current fund expenditures by colleges and universities for administration increased by more than 30%, while expenditures for instruction increased by only 10% (Mertin, 1969, 1974), and this was during a period when enrollments nearly doubled (Thompson, 1970). The signs are that this growth has continued during the recent "steady-state" period (Scott, 1977a).

This chapter is concerned with the demand, supply, sponsorship, and need for staff development and training activities for these new and aging middle-level collegiate administrators. The increasing numbers of these officials and the rising cost of administration make it an area we need to know more about if we are to offer proper accountability to constituents, limit "bureaucratic" growth, and achieve effective administrative organizations. Questions discussed include: What staff development and training activities for collegiate middle-managers are currently available? What new areas of training and development are desired by middle-level administrators? How should older staff be trained for new responsibilities and how will staff be trained and retrained in the future? Who should sponsor training?

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Using data gathered by a survey research questionnaire and structured interviews with education association executives, nearly two hundred administrators and faculty at twenty colleges and universities of different sizes and types, and an extensive review of literature, this writer examined the causes of growth, elaboration, and differentiation in middle-level collegiate administration; the role dimensions and conflicts, status, and values of incumbents; and the availability of professional development and training activities for mid-level administrators as currently desired and as required in the future (Scott, 1978c, 1978d).

Basically, these administrators fulfill three functions. They serve as liaison with external suppliers of resources, be they financial, materiel, or human; they implement procedures for internal allocation of resources and control of activities, especially in matters of campus coordination and compliance with external requirements; and they work with student activities and curricular responsibilities, standards, and opportunities. In each of these areas, new demands for accountability and limits to expansion imposed by a decline in financing have made it necessary to offer new forms of training to help middle-managers in their work. A new emphasis on effective administration adds to these pressures (Gross, 1976).

As collegiate organizations change in formal authority structure from a "leader-dominant" form, a form based on tradition, to a rational-legal form, new requirements are focused on those charged with administration (Blau, 1973; for an interesting view of this process of change, see Jacobs, 1977). The processes by which these new requirements are mastered vary by institutional setting, but two constants exist. In each case, there are both institutional and individual imperatives. Some training and development activities are sponsored to meet organizational needs, and others are offered more to meet individual desires for improvement than for reasons of organization effectiveness.

WHY STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING?

Efforts related to organizational needs are likely to be

concerned, first, with a desire for an "effective administration," i.e., one which comprises goal formulation, goal attainment, resource acquisition, and membership satisfaction (Genova, *et al.*, 1976). A second concern is the manner in which these activities are carried out and the influence on this institutional behavior of presidential or leadership style (Brooks, 1973; Henderson and Henderson, 1974; Richardson, 1975 and Baumgartel, 1977). And third, federal and state, as well as corporate trustee, requirements for administrative accountability in academic, financial, and personnel matters carry such severe sanctions that presidents are well-advised to be concerned about how campus authorities conduct their business. Colleges and universities are under enormous pressure to change from being like private, family-owned companies dominated by relatives to become more like publicly held corporations, and accountable for their actions (Scott, 1978a).

Since middle-level collegiate administration is really an extension of the president because he or she cannot possibly answer all inquiries and make all decisions, it is therefore necessary for the president to be concerned about the professional health and condition of his subordinate officers (Bess and Lodahl, 1969, Thomas, 1978). The manner in which they conduct their affairs will affect his relations with faculty and outside groups. His ability to control the growth of administration will depend upon his knowledge of it. For reasons of organizational effectiveness, he must be concerned about the ability of his staff to meet specific, usually technical, requirements. However, there is not much evidence that higher education institutions sponsor training for these needs.

Another demand is for training and staff development that fulfills individual needs for recognition, desire, and job requirements. Collegiate middle-managers want to learn, be challenged, and be appreciated. Programs of staff development can help meet these diverse individual needs. The motives for wanting training are revealed in responses to questions about incentives for improving skills. Middle-level administrators list job security, personal growth and satisfaction, salary increases, peer

recognition, and personal pride (Scott, 1978b).

When one asks about incentives for gaining increased competence that *should* be offered, he learns that high on the list are internal mobility, job rotation, and institutional support for staff development programs. Some respondents mention "performance evaluation," which is the chief, formal way of measuring the competence and performance of those who manage (Anderson, 1975; Dressel, 1976; Genova, *et al.*, 1976).

Presidents and other senior administrators say they want well-trained, competent, highly motivated staff who, like research faculty, are "self-starters." But similar incentives--e.g., paid leaves of absence, tenure, and adequate resources--are not provided (Bowen, 1978). Few institutions do more than provide funds for travel to association meetings as a form of professional development. It is not unusual to hear a college president say that support for training is not important: after all, there is no mobility in college administration and therefore no need to commit hardpressed budget dollars to training, there is a constant supply of recent graduates and faculty who either have been denied tenure or who wish to move out of their studies into administration and, finally, administrators with a desire to learn will, on their own, find the courses they need. In fact, the training given most support by institutions is for new deans and other senior executives, and for secretaries, clerks, and technicians. The former is sponsored by national associations, the latter by institutions themselves (Scott, 1978c).

While most staff development activities have been directed towards teachers, and there is a long tradition of in-service training for elementary and secondary school teachers, we have witnessed in recent years a growth in the number of training and development opportunities for collegiate administrators. These follow closely behind programs for college faculty. Charles Fisher, director of the Institute for College and University Administrators, American Council on Education (ACE), provides an excellent brief review of this topic (Fisher, 1977c). Gaff, *et al.* (1978) offer a more extensive review of the

literature on training.

Possible cause for this growth in training activities are varied. Gross (1976) and Fisher (1977c) suggest several that are corroborated by other research (Scott, 1978d):

1. A new sense of management accountability on campuses.

2. An eagerness to learn that brings many administrators to college employment in the first place.

3. The inherent relationship between administrator evaluation and training.

4. The desire to keep up with new complexities and technologies.

THE VARIETY OF DEVELOPMENT AND TRAI[illegible]TIES

One career development expert, a profes[illegible] of psychology at Pennsylvania State University and a consultant to industry, argues that managers should spend twenty percent of their time keeping up to date by learning new techniques and reviewing significant old ones (Fowler, 1977). Consultation with others in similar positions and reading are among the most frequent sources of information for professional development and new ideas for job responsibilities (Scott, 1976), but such informal means can be inefficient.

More formal opportunities are numerous, as a quick review of advertisements in almost any issue of the *Chronicle of Higher Education* will show. The *Chronicle* also publishes the annual "Calendar: A Guide to Meetings, Conventions, Seminars and Travel." A major reference is *A Guide to Professional Development Opportunities for College and University Administrators* published by ACE (Galloway and Fisher, 1978).

Programs vary in sponsorship, scope, and audience. Some are offered by national or regional associations; some are commercial ventures; others are in the form of institutes sponsored by universities. They range in time from a day or more to a week, and up to six weeks in length. The curriculum may be aimed at the responsibilities of a particular set of administrators, or it may emphasize the institutional-level planning and decision-making. Many of the administrators studies by Scott (1978c) expressed strong interest in the topics of budgeting, accounting, computers, legal issues, and evaluation. The program audience may include department chairmen, deans, business officers, student personnel administrators, vice presidents, or presidents.

Staff training and development in colleges and universities face severe obstacles. While military, business, and governmental employers regularly send their executives and officers to training programs, collegiate institutions do not. Consequently, many administrators lack the encouragement, budget, and time necessary to attend the programs that exist. The aura of an amateur or silent administration is still desired by many presidents and faculties (Knapp, 1969; Baldridge, *et al.*, 1978; Scott, 1978e).

Higher education has not yet realized its responsibility for the professional development of its middle-level staffs, but this is not for lack of good ideas. Charles Fisher of ACE has proposed a National Academy for Leadership Development in Post Secondary Education (Fisher, 1977b), a cooperative, national academy "that is both a conference/training/learning center and a professional development program. . ." The idea of such an academy is not yet a reality, in part because staff development in colleges is not considered part of organizational development (Richardson, 1975).

THREE ISSUES FOR THE 1980s

Three issues deserve further treatment if we are adequately to prepare for the 1980s: The need for change in training curricula; the need for change in the

populations to whom training is offered; and the need for change in the sponsors of staff development programs.

At present most programs available are of three general types: (1) those sponsored by institutional associations for carefully selected faculty chosen for senior administrative positions; (2) those sponsored by middle-managers' occupational associations for their members; and (3) those sponsored by institutions for their employees. The first type may be as much "prestige-conferring" as actually helpful in training for specific skills (Kanter and Wheatley, n.d.; see also Baumgartel, 1977). The second type, offered by national occupational associations, ranges from one-hour workshops at the time of annual meetings to sessions several weeks in length, but they emphasize technical competence. The third type, offered by home institutions, seems to be oriented to non-exempt supervisors and to emphasize the "affective" domain; they include courses such as transactional analysis and getting along with others. Scott (1978c) reports that supervisors and managers at all levels want more training in content areas such as budgeting, accounting, and managing. In addition, training curricula will have to be expanded to include new areas of expertise required by top administrators. Colleges and universities are limited in how much they can grow and in the extent to which they can afford consultants. Therefore, institutions will have to train current employees for new expertise in areas such as pensions, equal pay laws, safety requirements, and other matters of government regulation if they are to change the trend toward growth in administration.

It is interesting to note that the literature on staff development includes so little on the subject of "orientation." It seems to be assumed that all new staff members understand the mission, nature, organization, and governance structure of a college or university. But that cannot be true. The rapid growth of staff is occurring not in the traditional "academic" areas of advising and registration, but in new areas adopted from industry--personnel, data processing, planning, finance, and business affairs. Neither these

positions nor the incumbents share a collegiate tradition. And it is in these areas that many tensions develop between faculty and staff (Scott, 1978c). Shattock (1970) suggests such an orientation course--a form of socialization to the organization--for British universities, and it should be considered by U.S. institutions as well.

The proposed changes in training curricula assume a concomitant change in those who are trained. At present, training opportunities are limited, generally, to non-exempt staff, specially selected middle-managers, and newly-appointed senior staff. But the biggest needs are represented by veteran middle-managers. First, this is the group that must master new forms of administrative complexity. They are the ones who face the challenges from federal and state financial aid program regulations, revised minimum wage levels for student and non-student employees, new retirement and pension benefit rules, due process and equal employment opportunity standards, and other changes due to inflation and the special markets that provide services for higher education.

And second, this is the group that faces the possibility of substantial career disappointment as they come to face the prospects of limited mobility, pay, and status (Bowen, 1978; Scott, 1978c. This is also a concern in British institutions; see Moodie and Eustace, 1974). When interviewing collegiate middle-managers, it is not uncommon to find a director of an office who has served for twenty years or more in the same position, during which time his office's responsibilities have grown and expanded. In like manner, the whole administrative organization of the college has grown more complex and added layers of administration. A variation of the "Peter Principle" takes place: the person appointed as head of a small service office stays as its head even while it grows in size and complexity; the skills required change, but the same person remains as director. It is not uncommon to find that the director of an office is due to retire after 30 years as its head and the assistant has been second in charge for 15 years (Scott, 1978c). There are several issues highlighted by such an example, not the least of which is loyalty, or

organizational commitment. Career paths and mobility are others.

The longevity of office directors can serve to retard even further the already limited internal mobility of junior officers in the relatively flat organization structures of colleges (Scott, 1975). Thomas (1978) and Bess and Lodahl (1969) refer to the slight turnover of middle-managers, but these conclusions are probably influenced by their samples: they surveyed heads of offices. Scott (1978c) asked department heads about turnover among subordinates, and association officials about turnover among members. His conclusion is that assistants and associates change positions much more frequently than directors, and that such attrition is costly to institutions.

The literature on the organizational commitment of collegiate administrators is sparse. Thomas (1978) provides an excellent summary and analysis of what is known and contributes to the field with findings from his research. He cites Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Buchanan (1974), who define job involvement as the degree to which a person's work performance affects self-esteem, identification with organizational mission, a sense of involvement in one's organizational duties, and commitment to remain with the organization. Pay and status have been examined by Baumgartel (1977), Thomas (1978), and Scott (1978c).

The needs for mid-career training and job satisfactions have been discussed extensively (see, for example, Bess and Lodahl, 1969; Solmon and Tierney, 1977; and Flint, 1978). We must think not only about who is to be trained, but why they are to be trained.

This concern leads naturally to the third issue, i.e., who should sponsor training and development activities? At present, associations offer most such opportunities with little influence from institutions. (It is true, of course, that past participants advise association sponsors, but they usually do so as individuals, not as institutional spokesmen.) While it is impressive that 300 colleges and universities have training programs,

many with full-time directors, they represent fewer than 10% of all collegiate institutions in the U.S. and this is not an area of growth. It seems reasonable to assume that national associations and their agents will continue to provide members with opportunities for training, keeping up to date, guidance, direction, recognition, colleagueship, and rewards.

It is possible, however, that new campus concerns may influence local action on behalf of training. Equal employment opportunity rules and new retirement legislation may inspire interest in training as a concomitant to performance evaluation. Government officials and trustees are already, directly and indirectly, asking administrators to be accountable for their decisions. Faculty members, both locally and through national groups, play a significant role in policy formation and administration, and demand of college administrators "a consideration and an accountability significantly different from that required by . . .managers" in other organizations. They are, in a sense, asking for more formal appraisals of administrators, a check on quality control (*New York Times*, December 25, 1977), which can lead to an increased interest in formal training. Students also demand that administrators be accountable and subjected to formal evaluation (Anderson, 1975). Last, but not least, administrators themselves ask for evaluation as a form of feedback and recognition. In each case, training for improvement can be a result, because evaluation and development are two sides of the same coin (Fisher, 1977a, 1977c).

The foregoing notwithstanding, it seems probable that associations will continue to provide most training opportunities. They have the experience and a kind of momentum. They are dedicated to "encourage excellence and creative leadership," to give members "continuing opportunity for professional contact, expression, and growth," and to "cultivate professional attitudes, ideals, and standards" (NACUBO, 1976; Scott, 1978c). Professional development training is an important part of their purpose, and is unlikely to diminish in importance. The opposite is true in colleges and universities. Staff development for administrators is

not considered a central function, and as budgets are trimmed, it is even less likely to find support. This is not to say it is unimportant; it just seems unlikely that proposals such as that by DeHart (1977) for a comprehensive and integrated management development program on each campus will be a reality soon. The limitations of money, time, encouragement, and motivation are severe, and suggest that staff development in the future will continue to rely on association activities and individual initiative.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRESIDENTS TO CONSIDER

Nevertheless, one can formulate recommendations about training and development for presidents and provosts, and for collegiate middle-managers, to consider. Granted that there are limits to the amount of change that can be expected in the attitudes of senior administrators toward training, much can be done to contribute to both job satisfaction for the individual and effective administration for the institution. Scott (1978c) formulates for presidents and provosts five areas of suggestion which are based on a need for organizational development and concern for the value of what is known as human capital (See also Kerr, 1972).

1. Make use of what is know about job satisfaction and organizational commitment (See especially Bess and Lodahl, 1969; Ingraham with King, 1968; Braude, 1975; Maccoby, 1976; Richardson, 1976; Sheppard and Herrick, 1972; and Solmon and Tierney, 1977). Develop incentives that reinforce major job satisfactions, e.g., opportunities to help students and staff, to act independently, and to make an impact on the organization, job security and advancement, professional growth, salary increases, and peer recognition (Scott, 1978c), and programs that deal with areas of frustration such as lack of staff, poor work space, paperwork, and lack of recognition and appreciation for their work (Ingraham with King, 1968; Perkins, 1973).

2. Provide mechanisms of feedback to middle-managers about their successes and shortcomings. Most people need external stimuli and reactions to help develop feelings of self-esteem, satisfaction, and mastery (Bucher and Stelling, 1977; for comments on the function of high expectations, see Price, 1977). Make sure that middle-management jobs have opportunities for success, professional growth, training, and an adequate salary structure. Presidents say they want "self-starters" and compare administrators to faculty. But they do not provide similar environmental conditions, rewards, and incentives.

3. Be concerned about the environment for innovation. Many administrators see their organizations as relatively constraining. They find there is little expectation that they will try out new ideas; they feel they have little or no freedom to set their own personal performance goals; top management shows little "consideration" for middle-managers; and communication is not "free" and "open" (Baumgartel, 1977). Demonstrate an attitude of interest in how new development can help (Kerr, 1972; Price, 1977). An atmosphere of trust and respect is required to foster the confidence needed for effective problem solving by mid-level staff (Maccoby, 1978).

4. Recognize the value to the individuals and to the organization of broad participation in goal-setting activities. This is an imperative in the development of professional identity, integration, and commitment. In McClelland's terms, people have the need to achieve, the need for affiliation, and the need to assume a major (not necessarily a dominant) role in the organization (McClelland, 1961). Encourage the development of administrative councils and similar structures (Scott, 1978c). Consider new dimensions to the roles of middle-managers. In Britain, for example, collegiate middle-

managers seem to have a more central role and are accorded much more dignity than in either Canada or the U.S. We can learn by studying new methods of career development and organization, and the role of British administrators in institutional decision-making (Greenaway, 1977).

5. Encourage career alternatives and mobility within your organization. Because expectations are low and administrative structures flat, there is no tradition for internal mobility in administration. Now, concern for professional growth and mobility is often interpreted as allowing promotion only within specified career ladders. But on most campuses, career ladders are either non-existent or very short. For example, if there is a four-person office of admissions and a one-person office of financial aid that needs a new director, it should be possible to appoint to that position a bright admissions officer who may leave the college because he or she wants and deserves new professional challenges and rewards. The dilemma of internal mobility and local Affirmative Action requirements for the widespread advertising of positions is of such magnitude that it requires special attention.

It has been shown that middle-managers want to learn, be challenged, and be appreciated. Most do not regard upward mobility as their prime goal. The opportunity for new challenges, even in short-term or "task force" assignments, and significant contributions of effort toward the achievement of campus goals are equally important. Renewed attention must be given to collegiate organizational structure and the degree of mobility--both upward and especially lateral--possible within them. Job rotation and sabbatical leave programs should be adopted. Middle-managers may even be able to contribute to the development of new curricula in areas of interest to students. Only by understanding the roles, functions, and needs of middle-level administrators, and by making the best use of

them as extensions of the presidency, will colleges and universities be able to exercise some control over the rise of administrative costs and get, as one Senior Vice-President put it, "more bang for the buck."

CONCLUSION

Scott (1978) reports that he was enormously impressed by many of the middle-managers he interviewed. They had achieved their status almost in spite of their institutions, or at least without conscious institutional support. They suffer and yet they prosper. They have a high degree of institutional loyalty, but must look off campus, mostly to their associations, for training, guidance, recognition, colleagueship, and rewards. They are optimistic: not because they believe things will get better, but that *they* get better and rise to meet the new needs.

With the growing complexity of institutional organization and the continued need for new kinds of expert knowledge, together with the fact that opportunities for mobility are becoming increasingly uncertain at a time when job security for middle-managers is improving (especially through the expansion of "due process" and "equal protection" coverage in personnel matters), it is important for institutions to commit resources and become more active in the development and sponsorship of training programs. They cannot rely so greatly on national associations and individual initiative if they are to help solve future problems. Such a commitment to campus training efforts would not only be symbolically important to university staffs, but could provide the funds necessary to satisfy both institutional needs for competency and efficiency and individual needs for challenge and encouragement. Only with this kind of commitment can there be congruence in administrative needs and training goals in American higher education.

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COMMUNITY COLLEGE STAFF DEVELOPMENT: THE TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE

Robin G. Buchan

Traditionally, the teachers' point of view tends to be discounted or even ignored when the topic of staff development is raised at the community college. The rationale for this slight is based on the assumption that regardless of the form staff development takes, teachers will probably be against it. In point of fact, the teachers will likely be against staff development because in the past such "development" has been inseparably linked with teacher evaluation of some type. Teacher evaluation, in turn, invariably involves observations, analyses of teaching skill, data-gathering and like activities, all of which can be threatening to those who are observed, analyzed, and evaluated. The broad implication that staff development should include all members of the college community does not mean much to the teachers. They tend to view staff development programs as administrative manipulations which attack teaching autonomy, rather than programs which could also improve the competence of administrators as well as teachers.

These teachers tend to be intelligent, sensitive people who occasionally witness deceit and bad judgment on the part of their students; they do not imagine that their administrators are above subjecting them to more of the same in the name of innovation. Many teachers firmly believe "staff development" is a euphemism for "staff evaluation," or "teacher performance evaluation." Thus, they become suspicious of an administration that suddenly begins to collect vast amounts of quantitative material on teaching for any reason. Promises of how the material will or will not be used ring hollow when that same administration is responsible for the rating, ranking, and even removal of teachers. Pronouncements to the contrary, it is at present difficult for the staff to believe that gathered information will be used exclusively to improve teaching. And why should these instructors believe any

other way? There is virtually nothing historically to indicate any institutional interest in, or support of, improved teaching. Kenneth E. Eble (1971) writes:

. . .institutions and the profession do little to develop college faculty members as teachers. Within institutions, the setting aside of a specific percentage of a budget for faculty development is a very uncommon practice.

The faculty mistrust of the motives behind staff development is not aimed solely at administration. Any group, even one drawn from the teaching staff itself, will be suspected by the remaining members, for nearly every staff has a built-in competitiveness and individualism which precludes complete trust among its members. Although they are a community of teachers who share some interests in pedagogy, their individual backgrounds, personal purposes, and goals reflect a broad spectrum. Any small group which attempts to spotlight classroom accomplishments could be regarded as threatening since advancement in salary and rank may be realized through calculated dash and show rather than substantial contribution. Such advancement is highly competitive, even with salary schedules, and any visible innovation can be regarded as potentially detrimental to the majority by bringing reward to the individual. Thus, the teaching staff members at most community colleges are not yet ready to believe in staff development. To many teachers, "staff development" should read "teacher development" since they believe, rightly or wrongly, that administrators have shown little interest in improving themselves.

These attitudes reflect a stereotyped concept most teachers have of what staff development is, or should be. They have had no practical experience with it, either in their careers or as observers when they were still in school. And they have received little leadership from the universities; they have neither witnessed models nor read theory. They have little expectation that anything will change the reality of repetitious teaching assignments, endless committee meetings, and a seemingly uncaring administration. At least one survey of staff members by Keehn (1974) indicates that improvement of instructional skills can best be accomplished by giving the teachers ". . .more money, equipment, space, time, para-professional support, and

typing support." The responses in this survey indicate that the teachers had little interest in either evaluation or instructional improvement.

There is some reasonable basis for this lack of interest. Many teachers of today lived through the bountiful decades of the fifties and sixties when community colleges bid against one another for the services of any correctly credentialed instructor. They have grown up professionally with the attitude that their autonomy was assured through salutary neglect. They became accustomed to overcrowded classrooms, bulging audio-visual and library budgets, and professional mobility. The changes of the last few years have come as a shock. They are aware that something is very wrong when their classrooms are now without students, they can buy neither projector nor book, and no new teaching staff has been hired for several years.

Some teachers, often the senior ones, are quite content to wait. Tenure laws and the traditional institutional abhorrence of legal battles provides them with some security in their passive vigil. Other instructors, not as sure of their positions, often go about their teaching chores like the feeding hare of the Great Plains--their ears cocked, always sniffing the air for a predator. For both kinds of instructor, any unusual activity which is directed toward their performance will not be perceived with disinterest.

Yet in spite of this unsettled atmosphere, the past five years have seen an increase in staff development that is proportional to declining enrollments. It has become one of the most popular themes for workshops and conferences, and the halls of hotels hosting these confabulations literally ring with pedagogical jargon and promises of panacea. Boards of trustees, administrators, and selected staff have hurried back to their respective campuses with the high hopes that they may have found the cure for everything from those sagging enrollments to the unattended orientation programs. Robert Simerly (1976) found that in the last four years between 400 and 500 faculty development programs have been generated in the United States, and yet, ". . .there is no clear agreement about what faculty development programs should be doing."

This burgeoning of staff development programs has caused many unwary teachers to become the target of unworkable, ill-thought-out, and potentially destructive schemes. Many of these instructors have been through experiences which have not always followed the canons of good pedagogy. They are suspicious and worried, for they are aware the era of staff development is not over. Their concern is largely based on what has gone on before. At least three forms of activity have been classified by at least one source or another as staff development: "Self-evaluation," the "in-house expert," and the "invited consultant." Most community college instructors are only too aware of these categories and the deficiencies of each.

In the typical circumstance self-evaluation comes first. Of course the scenerio varies, but it ordinarily follows a pattern where the institution professes a sudden interest in or concern for the quality of instruction, and the administrators verbally encourage the teachers to improve. The words of inspiration come at the orientation program or at the extra-publicized faculty meetings. Streams of encouragement continue in the form of approved proposals for instructional improvement and monies for travel and conferences. Divisions and departments are allowed retreats, and on-campus workshops appear with discussion leaders emulating barkers as they share their particular brands of innovation.

The problem is that little has been done to find a teaching standard, or point of origin from which improvement can be measured. Some teachers jostle for a visible position where they can bask in the rays of administration's positive attending behavior. Others take the more circuitous route of seeking positive student reaction through courting teacher-of-the-year awards. Still others go into their offices and close their doors.

And then the era of self-evaluation comes to an end; partially from its own inertia, partially through active resistance by some, and partially because the payoff to the participants does not warrant further effort. The introspective, innovative teacher who had constantly worked at refining, developing, and improving his or her technique, style, and fund of knowledge, continues to develop that technique, style, and fund of knowledge. The other kind of teacher continues to be the other kind.

Of course that result, or lack of result, is not in itself an important criticism. No serious student of staff development would claim immediate or major improvements by simply implementing a program. E. H. Jabker (1977) writes:

. . .it is unlikely that programs for faculty development--no matter how effective--will alter the way most faculty teach and think. There are too many powerful forces in opposition to this possibility--the most that can be reasonably expected to occur are relatively moderate changes.

But the results of a plan like self-evaluation, without a distinct point of origin or a well-constructed and agreed upon strategy, can be nothing more than fragmentary and indefinite. And even when the occasional teacher does show progress in his or her development, there remains the question, at what cost? The complexion and competence of a teaching staff does not necessarily improve because one or two of its members dramatically improve their teaching effectiveness. Their improvement might have come at the cost of faculty cooperation, harmony, colleague openness, or any of the many other intangibles that make up the teaching environment.

Self-evaluation, then falls short of being an adequate solution for the problems that beset the modern community college. Still, pleas for staff development continue as the concerned institutions grope for the formula for increased teaching effectiveness. Often those efforts are enlarged beyond the first step of self-evaluation to include the exploitation of the talents of the more successful teachers on campus, the "in-house experts."

This step in staff development is usually initiated either by the administration in specific invitation to the chosen instructors, or by very dedicated teaching committees. In either case, the instructors chosen to lead the upgrading ritual have certain characteristics in common: They have well-attended classes, are reasonably well accepted by both students and peers, and are willing to take on additional responsibilities without demanding much in return. They are seldom, if ever, professionally trained to teach teachers to teach.

That inadequacy, however, is usually not a major consideration on the grounds that individual skills can be transmitted without the benefit of education theory or in-depth instruction. And thus the in-house-expert is called upon to demonstrate his or her singular formula for success. Quite often that skill is in lecturing, for as a method of instruction it has certain built-in advantages: it is one of the most economical methods of disseminating information, and since there is little evidence to indicate that amount of learning is at all dependent on class size, the large lecture can be supported institutionally as being educationally sound as well as inexpensive. In addition there is research, including that of Hinrichsen and Schaumburg (1975) to indicate that it is the method of instruction most preferred by students.

These economic, educational and preferential reasons certainly create a rationale for the institution to direct its attention toward the upgrading of lecture skills. The reasoning follows that if students prefer lectures, and there are no major constraints on the size of classes, then improved lecture skills will cause students to prefer lecture classes even more. And that will cause lecture classes to grow larger thereby causing the cost of instruction to decrease.

Continuing along with this sort of optimistic train of thought, the community colleges turn to their existing teachers to provide the necessary instruction. And the in-house-experts are seldom up to the challenge. Often the Drama or Speech instructor, whose well-modulated voice is so impressive at orientation or in the informal gathering, is ill-prepared to do more than evaluate, or comment on, the lectures of his colleagues. The ineffective lecturer who is disorganized and boring could not be expected to reverse that image without intensive work, and nowhere in the in-house-expert's concept is there a well thought out, coordinated plan to implement that improvement.

Still the faded images of constructive labor by the in-house-expert persist along with the remnants of those self-evaluation schemes. Yet the over-all picture of the college's lecturers has not measurably improved. The boring, disorganized lecturer continues to be boring and disorganized, but in addition is apt to show some signs

of paranoia as a result of his experiences with staff development. And so the in-house-expert method ends, possibly because of teacher complaints, or possibly because administration senses instructor dissatisfaction. The college becomes ready for the third approach to staff development, the invited consultant.

There is some teacher support for the idea of the invited consultant. One survey by Golemon (1974) indicates that both deans and teaching staff felt that consultants were useful. Yet the invited consultant method, like the other methods, is not without its problems and repercussions. Golemon's early observation is that:

Just as there are not enough faculty well trained as teachers, so there are not as many consultants as are needed to assist in the necessary training and pedagogical support of teachers.

The invited consultant is often considered by teaching staff in the stereotyped image of one who is more interested in enlarging his own vita and reputation than in significantly assisting instruction at the local community college. No matter how noble his intentions, he has great difficulty escaping this posture of the after-dinner speaker; any two-day workshop or even the week-long blitz suffers without follow-up and consistency. The teaching staff often views the consultant as an interloper who cannot possibly understand the unique qualities of their campus. They question both the value and the purpose of the invited consultant who may well reflect the views of the administration.

Thus the viewpoint of many teachers is that staff development programs have not been aimed at support, but rather have been attempts to solve what administrators perceive as institutional problems related to teaching. These teachers can easily equate staff development efforts with pressure tactics and attacks on teaching autonomy.

Yet the concept of staff development is not disappearing. Instead, the literature is increasing, both in volume and in quality. Serious program directors and students of staff development are now spending the needed time and effort to sift through the written material and experiences descriptive of the history of staff development. And as

this research comes to light, certain institutional responses seem appropriate. Caution is called for, both in overcoming teacher resistance and in implementing programs.

Directors of staff development in community colleges must be aware of the multitude of reasons for teacher resistance; they must be aware that, in fact, resistance is consistent with the instructors' experience. Directors of staff development must be aware that the methods employed in the past, no matter how universally, do not guarantee success--even the practice of video playback, a basic tool for the analysis of teaching performance, is being questioned. Fuller and Manning (1973) maintain that some teachers ". . .may not benefit or may be harmed by it." Finally, directors of staff development must know that some teachers with whom they will be dealing have, in the name of improved teaching, been subjected to overly publicized and ill-conceived programs, false starts, and irrational justification. There is no quick way in which these experiences can be sublimated or resistance lessened.

There is also no quick way in which a successful staff development program can be implemented. There is not yet a single best way to improve teaching effectiveness. The hundreds of different development programs illustrate that fact. Further, the existing programs are usually not first rate. Collins and Case (1974) report ". . .little, if any. . .budget is allocated. . .and responsibility for planning and carrying out a first-rate program most often falls between the administrative cracks."

And the criticism of existing programs mounts. Warren Bryan Martin began his 1975 presentation at the Annual Meeting of the Association of American Colleges with the warning that: "Bluntly, most faculty development programs are superficially conceptualized, parochial in strategies and tactics, and capable of only trivial outcomes."

Martin does not see an answer yet in the kinds of development programs now being proposed. He writes:

Most of the ideas being discussed in connection with faculty development programs are of greater importance to the institution than to the individual, to the administration than to faculty.

Most criticism, like that of Martin, is aimed not at the theory of staff development, but rather at the negative aspects of poorly constructed and poorly implemented programs. Staff development which is pointed toward staff support, development of teachers, and the improvement of teaching, is still a laudable and achievable goal, and one with which many community college teachers would agree.

There is no single best way to implement a staff development program and there is not yet a single best program to be implemented. But the way is still clear to create an environment which will provide fertile ground for future positive progress. For example, much can be done to prepare the entire institution for a possible program in which teachers could cooperate.

Since one negative aspect of current programs centers on the conflict between teachers and administrators, efforts should be made to reduce tension and build an environment of trust, difficult as this may be. One way in which it might be accomplished would be to insulate the program director from administrative association by installing an Instructional Improvement Committee or some other committee of teachers above the office of staff development. This chain of command might allay fears that information gathered by the staff development office could be used for purposes other than assisting in the improvement of teaching.

Once a working relationship is established, baseline data could be secured. This would include, as D. M. Rhodes (1977) writes:

. . .information about the teaching procedures actually being used in an institution, the quality of those procedures as carried out, the perceptions students and staff have concerning teaching at that institution, and the attitudes they display toward it.

This information could then be used to establish whether or not there were, indeed, problems with teaching and that staff development was needed. Baseline data would also provide a point of departure from which future progress could be measured. Teachers could be assisted in their quest for improvement and not simply instructed to

"improve." They could be supported as they strive to maintain, or improve on, the campus-wide quality of instruction.

In the next five years many community colleges will experience an increased demand for staff development. College administrators are still searching for solutions to enrollment deficits and there is little indication that student criticism of instruction will wane.

There is an increasing need for staff developers to become aware of the institutional benefits to be derived from staff development beyond, simply, the development of staff. These benefits, such as stemming student criticism, and cutting down on enrollment decreases, although ancillary in nature, should not be ignored.

While pedagogical advances are of primary concern, the next few years will be critical to the permanent establishment of responsible staff development programs. In those years, as developers strive for mutual trust between staff and administration, both sides must reap some rewards. The great concerns of administrators as well as instructors should be incorporated into programs in order to make the total staff development picture a success. While the instructional staff should be allowed to experiment without fear of administrative criticism when they fail, so too should the administration have some assurance that their very real problems will be addressed. This can be done through campus-wide commitment to the program that will at least well-publicize to students and community the institutional goal of excellence in teaching. Student criticism is bound to drop when it is apparent from all sides that pedagogy is being analyzed and improved; decreases in enrollment, the reasons for which can hardly be understood, at least cannot be considered a product of teaching disinterest when so much effort is being expended in that area.

The directors of staff development can become the conscience of the college: they must weigh carefully their decisions regarding instruction and institution, for instructional staff and administration have long been at odds with one another. The next five years could be a transitional period in which instruction and administration

could be welded into a force in which both parts realize their role and support each other.

The viewpoint of the teaching staff toward staff development expressed in this paper is seen through some eyes as retarding pedagogical progress. But it can also be seen as a positive force: staff resistance has acted as a brake on the runaway race to be the first, or the biggest, or the brightest of the staff development programs. Directors of staff development should respond. It is time for them to proceed, but with caution. They must become thoroughly acquainted with the staff members with whom they will be dealing, and establish a mutual environment of trust; then they should take great pains to make the goals of development consistent with the views of that staff. Any development programs undertaken must merge with the personality and thrust of the staff; and, as in Hippocrates' *Epidemics*, "Help, or else Do no Harm."

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A PARTICIPANT'S VIEW OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

John Cowan

INTRODUCTION

For the first time in my professional life, I feel myself competent to deal with my chosen subject. In my capacity as an engineering researcher I have often been all-too-conscious of issues in my field with which I have not yet grappled successfully; as a consultant, I have sometimes created designs which would surely have been rejected by more creative engineers; and as a university lecturer I have often gone home in the evening with an acute consciousness of the ineffectiveness of some of my teaching that day. In all of these spheres I have therefore only been able to write with diffidence, and with a healthy fear of revealing my feet of clay. But as a frequent participant in staff development activities, as a spokesman for those of us who need training, or who want training, or who are afraid of facing up to the weaknesses which training may reveal to us, as a representative of all those university teachers who have only been endowed with two talents and have still to unearth at least one of them, I am confident that I have a wealth of relevant inexperience from which to draw my views for this paper. This has been described, politely, as an "untainted position." I myself prefer to claim that my undoubted lack of expertise constitutes my authority to examine staff development at grass roots level, on behalf of my colleagues for whom (with me) staff development programmes are intended.

I do not intend to prepare a mere catalogue of plaintive bleatings of criticism, presented on behalf of the serried ranks of lecturers whose apathy for staff development is generally recognised. For I should be frank and freely admit that I believe strongly that there is a need for purposeful staff development and that I feel it is possible to improve the present provision within the foreseeable future, so I hope to offer constructive comments herein which may accelerate our progress towards that goal.

But I must begin with criticism, because we know that many participants are critical of staff development programmes, and I believe there is much to be learnt from that criticism.

COMMON VIEWS OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

There have been one or two stars in the otherwise dark and empty firmament of staff development; I expect most experienced novices could mention people who have been helpful, stimulating or inspiring in their contact with us. But those few bright stars only serve to emphasize the emptiness surrounding them. A shortage of competent and experienced staff developers is our greatest problem, and the severest constraint on progress. Most of the staff training schemes currently on offer are well-intentioned and are run by sincere and hardworking people who receive little thanks for their efforts. Their courses often serve to establish bridging contacts between interested novices and experienced innovators, and have prompted many of us, myself included, to look again at our teaching and to attempt to eliminate the weaknesses which we find there. But that, I am afraid, almost completes the sparse list of entries on the credit side.

Staff development programs have, as yet, made very little impact on the teaching profession as a whole. There are few training courses with waiting lists; the success-rate for even the best of them is scarcely discernable in terms of observable outcomes, if indeed there is a real success-rate there at all. Many universities subscribe in theory to the idea of staff development, yet in practice they display a disregard which testifies to their true verdict.

There is certainly as much room for improvement in university teaching as there is for improvement in the climate of the Sahara desert, but we teachers have yet to see any evidence that it is possible for the efforts of men to effect either change in the foreseeable future. Indeed the available evidence about staff development work is rather to the contrary.

Many courses are distinctly ineffective. From my own experiences alone, I could describe several weary weeks spent on far-from-inexpensive specialist courses (whose

titles had better remain nameless), where a majority of genuine participants learnt little and expressed their disappointment (and their indignation) fairly bluntly. I have attended courses where we were taught to lecture effectively by speakers who bored us; where we were exhorted to use audio-visual aids by speakers who did not use audio-visual aids in their talks or, worse still, used them badly; where we were encouraged to obtain feedback, but weren't given an opportunity to provide *ours*; where we had lectures, and only lectures, about small group teaching; or worst of all, where we were taught about the theory of learning by people who failed to apply that very theory in their own teaching. Admittedly it is not always necessary to excel in a particular sphere in order to be able to train others to reach high levels of performance therein; after all, it was a man who had been a distinctly nondescript centre-half who trained and managed the first Scottish football team to win the European Cup! But the good trainer must be demonstrably successful in helping his trainees, and most trainers of university teachers cannot show any evidence of such ability or outcomes.

PRESENT PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS

Even when the trainer or developer is highly competent (and there *are* a few of those around, I hasten to re-affirm), circumstances frequently constrain him, and do so with disastrous effects. The course may be too short, so that it closes just as we participants are beginning to grasp ideas and master skills, but before we have had proper reinforcement for that learning. So we are left insufficiently prepared to withstand the unexpected adversities which we will meet when we try to put our new ideas into practice, in our own "home" situation. Thus an effective course sometimes fails because there is no provision for an on-going and supportive follow-up. Indeed, it is seldom possible for any worthwhile provision to be made after the usual short intensive courses, although we all know that it is in implementation that the real experience is to be gained, and the real problems of principle encountered.

Another serious weakness in staff development work is that the teacher may well be stimulated by the ideas which the course has passed on to him, and eager to see a way to

transfer them to his own subject area but, despite its ample coverage, the course fails because it lacks the way to encourage that vital cross-disciplinary leap which must be made before anyone can relate new thinking to his own particular discipline.

Or again, staff developers tend to be interested in educational developments and they mix a fair amount with others who are similarly motivated. Their involvement with changes in teaching methods has therefore often been a relatively sheltered one. Certainly they have encountered opposition and difficulties, though not quite on the scale of the obstacles which loom larger than life above us ordinary mortals, who lack the innovator's unquenchable zeal, creative imagination and powers of persuasion. So we may be lulled into a sense of false security by the atmosphere on the course, created unthinkingly by able and enthusiastic people for whom the battle was difficult, but not as difficult as it will be for us, when we try to arm ourselves with confidence and enthusiasm to sustain us while we strive to keep our heads above water in the fiercely adverse environment in which we will have to attempt to follow their inspiring example. Perhaps it will be an essential part of the training of trainers in the future that they are required to follow through the initiatives which they inspire, just as there is a feeling abroad that it would be a valuable experience for modern day architects to be compelled to live for a few months in the council housing which they design, preferably in the early months (when the snags are still being discovered).

INDIVIDUAL NEEDS IN STAFF DEVELOPMENT

One of the most useful pieces of advice about my role as a teacher to be passed on to me in a staff training course was the need to analyse a situation systematically, identifying the pre-requisite knowledge and attitudes of my students, defining aims and objectives with that starting point in mind, and planning and preparing my courses accordingly. It perturbs me that staff developers appear to feel no need for such preliminaries, and cheerfully run courses which callously disregard the initial steps in that process. Analysis would quickly reveal a striking diversity of expectations and prior knowledge on the part of the

participants in staff development, and yet a standard prescription is normally offered to meet the demands of such varying diagnoses.

Thinking back over the course groups of which I have been a member, I can recall fellow participants who had enrolled because they had already dabbled and confirmed their interest in the subject of the course; now they expected authoritarian teaching to help them move forward quickly and effectively. There were those who looked for a universal panacea, a standard procedure for every situation, and who expressed their (inevitable) dissappointment early on by heartfelt explanations of why "this" (whatever "this" was) did not apply to *their* subject, or could not be attempted in *their* department. There were sometimes a few members with considerable experience who seemed to be concerned that they, as self-made men, might have missed out on something vital, although they hoped this would not be the case. And so they really wished to use the course to reassure themselves (and to convince others) of their competence. And there were always one or two self-confessed sceptics (recruited for heaven-knows what reason) whose main aim appeared to be to debunk the philosophy underlying the course. Some of us took the presentation of new ideas as an implied criticism; some rated such attempts as the well intentioned idealism of impractical dreamers; a few grasped the suggestions as a very real hope for a better future.

At one time or another, I am sure I must myself have been one or other of all the individuals whose attitudes I have been trying to paraphrase here. And so I know only too well the frustration of being grouped together with my fellows, of being treated as if we were all the same, by someone who has made unjustified assumptions about *my* initial standpoint. Selfishly I tend to set my own needs first. If *I* came as a believer then I did not look for an evangelist to begin by converting me, for I am now looking for a meaty diet to be provided by an authoritative expert; I would be irritated if I am taken through details of procedure before that learning had been justified. But if *I* wished to be convinced first that the activity was worthwhile; if I enrolled to acquire a new skill, then I may well be somewhat embarrassed by my gaucheness, and hope that my initial mistakes will be handled gently and fairly privately; but if I have

already had some experience, and have come as a consequence of my self-appraisal of early efforts, then I am probably ready for the detailed polishing-off of my rough corners, and for plain talking with high standards as the expressed aim.

Training courses are not, of course, the proper occasions for therapeutic counselling to eradicate personal problems relating to our work situation, but they are doomed to failure if they disregard our individualities and continue to offer a standard table-d'hote fare which does not take account of the wide divergence which exists within the target population of participants and prospective participants. Staff developers must learn to cater differently for markedly different expectations and attitudes within the one particular group. Perhaps this should be the subject of small group work by the participants running each course?

The reader may be wondering if individualisation is feasible. I can only answer that, thanks to the prompting of staff training courses, I have established a centre for resource-based learning by undergraduates. I can cope with individuality in a class of 90 - 110 students by adopting new methods within the existing budget. We can allow students to learn at their own rate; we can cater for those with highly appropriate qualifications and those who lack essential pre-requisite training; we can offer at least three different approaches to the subject matter and a measure of self-determination of syllabus, and we can also offer a measure of individualisation of syllabus. If that is possible for an ordinary teacher, amidst the everyday hurly-burly of undergraduate teaching, then surely it can also be achieved in staff development work, where the need to cater for individual differences is so much more acute, and where the "staff/student ratio" is much more favourable. It should be a top priority to explore that possibility thoroughly.

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

It will be clear from the above that I am convinced that staff development in the 1980s must face up to the implications of the individuality of each member of the staff group. Subjects, departments, universities, syllabuses

and constraints all vary enormously. Even if we stay within one department, and within one section of that department anyone can see that I am a different person from my closest colleague; we have different talents, interests, inclinations and priorities. These differences are important because they are the characteristics which make us distinctive individuals, each with unique contributions to offer to our students--and with unique expectations and demands which the staff developer is employed to help us to fulfill.

Future staff development work must therefore help each participant to identify areas of his teaching activity which are worthy of reconsideration and, possibly even of further training. It must treat each participant appropriately, with regard to the arrogance or apprehension, ignorance or experience, with which he approaches the selected topic, and with a proper recognition of his distinctive requirements. And, finally, staff developers must recognise that the self-diagnosis of weakness must eventually rest with the teacher, and so the remedy must be one in which he believes--otherwise he will soon set it aside.

These suggestions would call for a high proportion of individualised working in staff development work, for a deliberate allocation of time and effort to the identification and definition of needs, and for a time-scale which will enable the teacher/participants to have access to a diminishing measure of support over a considerable period of time. This implies a different pattern from the short, intensive, specialist course.

From the individual standpoint of the participant, I recognise the labour-intensive aspect of individualised attention. Nevertheless I suggest this could be kept at a reasonably competitive level.

One way of achieving individualisation would be the experimental course, using small groups and having experienced experts available as "resource people," in a programme structured initially to establish aims, tasks and roles for tutors, and with a later life for the groups as "self-help" units to function during the "implementation" phase of whatever outcomes were planned by participants.

Such courses would approach each individual as a unique participant; challenge him to define his needs; assist him to meet these needs; expose him to activities appropriate to his attitude and prior experience; help him, rather than show him; accept an on-going responsibility for some involvement in outcomes; make it possible for him to experiment and learn without serious consequences for his students.

As we move into the 1980s, the most pressing need is for competent, experienced staff developers. There are already men and women in this field with enthusiasm and concern, but that is not enough. There must be thorough and detailed evaluation of staff development activities; there must be rigorous and demanding programmes for the developers wherein they will gain experience, review their performances and learn from their failures, mistakes and successes; there must be a ruthless weeding-out of the incompetent, and a conscious setting of high standards. The few initiatives which have already taken in this direction should be supported and strengthened, with the type of development activity clearly in mind while developers are being trained for it.

Building thus on the strengths already present, I hope that it then will soon be possible:

1. To bring together teams of experienced staff developers in order to plan, run, validate and evaluate a variety of approaches, strategies and skills--with the aim of improving the choice of development programmes, the presentation of development activities and the personal skills of the leaders.

2. To set higher standards for the content, presentation and raison d'etre of papers and meetings devoted to staff development, in order to raise the level above that of more narrative accounts or subjective opinions, and to eliminate the relative absence of concern with outcomes.

3. To accept that the purposeful training of more staff developers is a responsibility which should be faced without much further delay.

But questions still remain--who will have the courage and determination to call together the top staff developers to set rigorous standards for a co-ordinated programme of further training and joint evaluation? Who will insist on the publication of reports, findings, and recommendations in an authoritative, convincing and helpful form? If these questions can be answered and the challenges posed by individualisation can be taken up, then participants in staff development may yet find their unique expectations and demands can be fulfilled in the coming decade.

EVALUATING STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Dent M. Rhodes

Anyone wishing to determine the quality of staff development programs is immediately faced with serious difficulties. Not the least of these difficulties is the lack of agreement on what constitutes staff development and how it should be carried out (see Brown, 1977). In fact, "active disagreement" better describes the reaction of some staff development personnel to others engaged in the same endeavor. While significant disagreements on ends and means may be the mark of a dynamic profession, they also lead to problems in evaluation. Unless we are clear about what we are doing, it is unlikely that we can determine accurately the quality of our work.

It is not surprising, therefore, that, while program evaluation is considered to be an important function in staff development, often little is said about how the evaluation should be carried out. As an example, a recent publication on establishing teaching improvement programs devotes only 12 pages of 370 to evaluation, and these contain for the most part simply accounts of the problems which may be anticipated (Lindquist, *et al.*, 1978). Criteria for success vary widely; what is regarded as valuable in one staff development program may have little significance in another. Some approaches to evaluation in staff development are actually descriptions of program structure and activities. They are really not evaluative in the sense of determining quality (see Bergquist and Phillips, 1977).

Given these circumstances, it may seem foolhardy to attempt any analysis of evaluation as applied to staff development. Nevertheless, there are some matters which can be clarified, though to offer a final solution to any of the problems inherent in the evaluation process would be presumptuous. This paper describes three evaluative models which can be used in assessing staff development programs, and also to illustrate that very different conclusions can be reached when these models are applied in turn in judging the same

program. Use of one model for evaluation may reveal considerable success; when another is employed, few positive results may be found.

To present a complete scheme for evaluating staff development is beyond the scope of this paper and the competence of the author, but some logical and empirical requirements can be found for a systematic method of evaluating staff development programs. Basic to fulfilling these requirements is the need for a coherent conception of staff development in higher education, one which current thinking could help to provide. Without systematic evaluation, staff development in the next decade will not fare well in the competition for resources.

EVALUATIVE MODELS

An examination of the general literature on program evaluation (e.g., Weiss, 1972; Worthen and Sanders, 1973) and that concerned specifically with staff development (e.g., O'Connell and Meeth, 1978) reveals two general "evaluative models" which can be used as the basis for assessing quality of development programs and activities. The first of these may be termed the "output" model. In this model the standards of achievement and success in staff development are focused upon the activities performed and the efforts made. Quality is directly related to the amount of work that is carried on: the number of workshops presented, conferences held, courses run, consultations carried out, publications dispensed, and newsletters published. Especially important are patronage measures of "how many came" or "how many enrolled." The output model may not be conceptually sophisticated, but it can be easily applied. There are relatively few data-gathering problems with which to contend, and a staff development program in its initial stage can use the output model to catalog its accomplishments (see Kellogg Project, 1976).

The second model may be called the "outcomes" model. In this model the standards for achievement and success are focused upon the "effects" or "impact" of the staff development program. Quality is determined by measures of the amount of impact on participants, the degree of change toward some desired end, or by some combination of the two. When program objectives are clearly specified in advance,

outcomes are also judged in relation to how well the intended results have been achieved. What is the impact on the target population? What is the level of participant acceptance, approval, or approbation? What changes in teaching practices can be observed? Did the program achieve aim "A" or goal "B?" These questions are characteristic of the outcomes model. It is more difficult to implement than the output model because it necessitates using more complex techniques for data-gathering and analysis (see Habeshaw, 1977; Rothman and Robinson, 1977).

A third model, derived from a conception of staff development work, can be designated the "instructional" model. It has a process orientation. In this approach, staff development is considered to be a form of continuing professional education. Evaluation of a staff development program is thus equivalent to evaluation of a continuing education program for staff (Rhodes, 1977a). The focus of the evaluation is on the design and implementation of instruction for a particular adult clientele with specific personal and professional needs and goals. In this situation the clientele are staff members themselves. They become a new type of "non-traditional" student clientele in higher education.

Standards used to determine success and achievement in the instructional model are related to the nature of the educational enterprise: quality is determined by the degree to which a program for staff development, i.e., for continuing professional education, meets predetermined standards for conducting instructional programs of this kind. It will be judged on the extent to which elements such as "needs assessment," "referent situation analysis," "participant involvement" and "supportive environment" are recognized and incorporated in a systematic fashion into the instructional process. Learning and subsequent modification of professional performance by participants in staff development activities are viewed as achievements of the participants, not of the program. Such changes (or lack of them) may be used as data in evaluating a program, but do not in themselves constitute measures of success or failure. This approach can be called "proximity" evaluation. That is, we try to determine the extent to which practice approximates an ideal formulation. "Discrepancy" evaluation has similar characteristics (see Provus, 1973).

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APPLICATION OF EVALUATIVE MODELS

The use of these three models may result in very different evaluative conclusions when they are applied in judging a specific staff development program or activity. How different conclusions are reached can be illustrated through using the models to evaluate the "College Teaching Laboratory," a joint undertaking of the Kellogg Teaching-Learning Center and the College of Education at Illinois State University. Employing video-tape equipment already available on campus, a two-room facility with multiple cameras, microphones, and "split-screen" capability has been made available since September, 1977, to teaching staff who wish to make tapes of their teaching for purposes of diagnosis and improvement. These tapes enable staff to see both themselves and their students simultaneously at any given time during a lecture, discussion, tutorial, or seminar. The equipment is operated by a student employee of the Center, and tapes are viewed only by the staff member and persons serving as consultants.

During the first semester of operation the Lab was used by some 25 teaching staff, each of whom made at least one tape, with some making as many as four. Most of these staff members were graduate students in their first year of teaching in higher education. Their involvement was part of a regular induction experience conducted by staff from the College of Education. The laboratory also served as meeting room for some graduate classes in which instructors used videotapes as part of the instructional process.

If the "output" model is used to evaluate this activity, the College Teaching Laboratory would seem to be successful. A facility for instructional improvement was established which made full use of existing equipment at a total cost for new materials of only about $75.00. After three months, 25 staff had obtained a more realistic picture of their classroom performance and now had a basis for improvement in the future. Much of the work was done with inexperienced teaching staff so that difficulties were identified and dealt with before they became major problems.

A different picture emerges, however, when the "outcomes" model is applied. In fact, it is difficult to determine any outcomes which can be attributed to the Lab except for participant attitudes. On the basis of data from

questionnaires and informal interviews, it may be said that those persons who made tapes were quite pleased with the experience and indicated that they found it to be quite informative. Though many of the participants also indicated they modified some aspects of their teaching after viewing themselves on tapes--and some modifications were observed--it is doubtful if the Kellogg Center can claim that the Teaching Lab was responsible for the changes. Other factors, including simply more teaching experience, might be quite as significant. When continued participation is used as an indicator of impact, the Lab does not score well: none of the persons who used the facility during the first semester returned to make additional tapes during the following semester.

If the Lab receives reasonably high marks with the output model and relatively low ones with the outcomes model, then use of the "instructional" model of evaluation produces still a third result. When judged against the requirements for designing and implementing a continuing professional education program for teaching staff, the process used to establish and conduct the Lab can be seen to have both significant strengths and serious deficiencies. For instance, an assessment of the need for a video-taping facility was conducted as part of a baseline data study of the status of teaching at Illinois State (Rhodes, 1977b). The 64 "instructional leaders" interviewed in this study indicated that analysis of their teaching using video-tapes was something that only half had ever done, but that it ranked highest in the activities they "would like to try." The inadequacy of the needs assessment became quite obvious, however. The sample was not sufficiently representative of the teaching staff as a whole, nor were the responses good indications of the actual sentiments of the instructional leaders. None of those who said they wanted to try video-taping their teaching actually did so. It should be added also that this important group of potential participants were not consulted or invited to help in setting up the Lab. There was no participant involvement in the planning stages.

An analysis of the referent situation, in this case classroom teaching at Illinois State, did not sufficiently emphasize one of the most significant conditions, lack of rewards for change by potential clientele. Perhaps it is more accurate to say that this condition was recognized,

but largely disregarded because it did not support the project being undertaken. Most teaching staff at Illinois State apparently do not have much motivation to improve their teaching. There is evidence that they believe the quality of teaching in the university is already more than satisfactory and do not think they would be rewarded even if improvements were made. Institutional pressures, though important for the graduate teaching assistants when they first began, also did not suffice once these instructors had demonstrated their fitness to teach through a semester's work. On the positive side, a supportive environment for change was provided by the Lab personnel and consultants; many participants remarked that what they had anticipated would be a threatening experience was instead interesting and informative.

One can conclude that with respect to meeting the standards for planning and implementing one component of a continuing education program for staff, those persons responsible for the College Teaching Laboratory (chiefly the author of this paper) would receive good marks for trying to proceed systematically, but lower ones for lack of sophistication in their efforts. (It may be they needed staff development.) The evaluative verdict using the instructional model is mixed; it contains both positive and negative judgments of quality.

SYSTEMATIC EVALUATION

These examples help to illustrate that at present it is virtually impossible to conduct a sound and rigorous appraisal of staff development work. Even if one model is applied rigorously and sophisticated measurement devices are employed, questions raised by the other models are left unanswered. If all are used, the conflicting results are such that no adequate decisions about quality can be made. The soundness of the objectives is hardly questioned at all. There may be, however, a series of steps through which a resolution might be achieved, though these steps would not be a panacea for the difficulties inherent in evaluation.

A first step would be to construct one *or more* coherent conceptions of staff development which can be extended systematically to provide a pattern for evaluation efforts.

We can think of staff development as a continuing professional education program for a specific group of adult "non-traditional" students. Another conception might be that of "counseling," with staff as clients. A third could be a "training" approach adapted from business or the military. Even the "horticulturalist" position might have possibilities in promoting "growth." Staff development centers have many characteristics of public health clinics and often treat bad teaching as a social disease, though where an extension of this view might lead is not certain. In any case, *some* consistent conception of what staff development is about will be necessary if any program evaluation is to be more than an *ad hoc* venture governed by expediency and political considerations.

A second, concurrent, step is to give more attention to a critical examination of presently used materials and methods in development. Self-instructional packages on teaching skills, for example, could be analyzed to determine what they reveal about the assumptions underlying staff development processes. Thought and practice to be found in any number of programs could contribute to clarifying the concept of staff development--if that thought could be methodically reviewed. Unfortunately, money and time for thinking are not always built into program budgets and timetables. Staff development personnel are also often inclined to say "Let's get on with it," which is no doubt one reason why they took up the work in the first place. This is not a call for a replacement of "vigor" with "rigor" (since rigor mortis may soon follow), but simply a request that those responsible for communications networks, conferences, and journals consider finding more time and space for analytic presentations and invite these if necessary.

A third step would be to make explicit, for any conception of staff development chosen, logical and empirical requirements for systematic evaluation. Logical requirements are those inherent in our understanding of "evaluation" as a concept. Empirical requirements are those principles fundamental to data-collection and analysis. Among these should be included:

a) Value principles: statements of what constitutes quality in staff development activities.

Evaluation implies determining worth; it is more than description.

b) Performance factors: elements which are to be evaluated. These are the significant aspects of the program which must be judged.

c) Value criteria: conditions to be met in order to establish quality, or lack of it. Performance factors are judged in relation to these criteria.

d) Value categories: descriptions of gradations in quality. These describe various classifications such as "excellent" and "very poor."

e) Indicators: types of data about performance required in the evaluation. In the absence of appropriate data, evaluations are either statements of preference or prejudice.

f) Data-gathering procedures: specifications of sources and instruments. The data required should determine the procedures; available procedures should not determine what data are collected.

g) Appraisals: statements about the way in which various performance factors were categorized. These should answer questions about program quality.

If these basic elements are spelled out in detail, then selection of staff development conceptions and evaluative models appropriate for a given program can proceed on a more rational basis than is now the case.

A fourth step is to integrate research and development activities. Presently some research is done on staff development, and some staff development is based upon research, but the state of the art is such that these activities are seldom thought about conjointly. Certainly this would seem to describe the reports in a recent publication on staff development in higher education (Elton and Simmonds, 1977). Research on evaluation is in short supply and is especially needed on the effects that

program evaluations have on ongoing development activities. Staff are expected to change, and improve, through evaluation of their work; does the same thing apply to staff development? Do programs actually improve; if so, how? These questions merit further inquiry.

Unless we proceed with these or similar steps, staff development will face serious problems in the coming decade. Like programs for blacks and women in the States, staff development is a relative latecomer to the higher reaches of academia. In many circles it is considered a "frill" and, as such, expendable. "Last hired, first fired" may well apply to staff development as it does to other programs. There are always pressures from established departments which would like to claim the development funds for their own budgets, even if these departments seldom have to demonstrate either managerial efficiency or educational effectiveness.

The ability to demonstrate quality in professional performance does not guarantee tenure for staff nor will it insure a permanent place for staff development in higher education. Systematic evaluation, however, shows more promise than appeals to good will, especially when it is coupled with sure faith, true grit, and close relationships with key administrative officers. Considerable progress toward systematization can be achieved during the next few years, though hopefully not at the expense of experimentation and intuitive insights. Collaborative efforts by persons of all persuasions will be needed.

AN AGENDA FOR THE '80s

To this end a brief agenda proposed for the '80s follows:

1. establish a cooperative effort, international in scope, to improve the evaluation of staff development programs;

2. review and assess alternative conceptions of staff development; incorporate research in the invention of new ones as needed;

3. devise systematic models for evaluating staff development programs based upon the alternative

conceptions; select representative programs to serve as pilot projects;

4. test the evaluation models;

5. prepare and distribute reports illustrating the use of various approaches to evaluation and the problems associated with each; determine areas for further research and development.

It is by no means certain that the importance of staff development in higher education is such that the funding and leadership can be found for the kind of project briefly outlined above. If a major effort to improve evaluation (and thereby staff development programs themselves) cannot be supported, then it is safe to say that staff development itself is yet another fad making the rounds in higher education. If leadership and finances are forthcoming, then we will have more than enough demands on our energies in the next decade.

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EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE 1980s: MEANINGFUL SURVIVAL OR TENURE ON THE TITANIC?

Charles E. Pascal

A FEW INTRODUCTORY BIASES

It is not unusual at conferences on staff and instructional development for my colleagues and me to argue about the superiority of this method versus that method but agree on the need for administrators and teachers alike to recognize the value of our programs. Indeed the conference at which the papers in this publication were originally presented provided an interesting case study concerning the "state of the art:" many of the leading staff and instructional development people around the globe spent one half day arguing about the design of a two day working party session.

Perhaps this is a mild occupational hazard; perhaps it is a result of the natural growth of the field of study and the missionary zeal we have brought to it. I am beginning to believe that those of us in the business of staff and/or instructional development are making the same mistake with each other that we have made with our clients as we attempt to chart a course for the 1980s. Are we problem-solvers or salespersons?

We have been guilty, I believe, of bombarding our university and college colleagues with the latest product, creating new needs rather than identifying and solving existing ones. Whether we have peddled modular instruction, micro-teaching, small group learning, or computer assisted instruction, we have often had one thing in common: we have, as George Geis has pointed out, solutions "in search of a problem." The heavy investment in building up one's expertise of those skills may lead to the mis-application of them (Geis, 1970). Of course, our intentions are honorable. That is, we would like our clients to adopt a certain innovation or way of looking

at the world because we sincerely believe it will lead to positive consequences for them and their institution.

Many people who want to bring about change have definite ideas about what the change should be; they have solutions and they would like others to adopt those solutions. However, being an effective solution-giver involves more than simply having a solution. You have to know when and how to offer it, and you have to know enough about it to help the client adapt it to his needs (Havelock, 1973).

In clinical psychology it is not unusual for a patient to be treated by a clinician with his/her "specialty of the house" when a different approach to behavior is actually in order. A patient may therefore come into the office with a fear of flying and leave an hour later hating his mother. Far fetched? Perhaps, but when the change agent's solution doesn't fit the problem sometimes a new problem is created. We have been doing too much selling to each other and our clients, and not enough problem-solving.

It is for this reason that I find comfort in the "front end analysis" which George Geis (Chapter 8) discusses in his paper. I derive conceptual satisfaction from Jerry Gaff's discussion of the distinctive nature and interrelatedness of faculty, instructional and organizational development (1975 and Chapter 1). My professional interests in the concept of accountability are well served by Dent Rhodes' (Chapter 14) interest in, and approach to, evaluating our work. My personal need to be "relevant" and to take seriously the individual differences of my clients is reinforced by the type of systematic approach to needs analysis described by Robert Scott (Chapter 11). I do not believe that one can meaningfully discuss, plan, or implement an effective staff development program without relating it to organizational development and the general issues with which our institutions are facing and are likely to continue facing in the 1980s. It is with these biases that I approach the role of staff development in the 1980s.

THE NEW REALITY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

I would like to begin by discussing the larger context in which our post-secondary institutions will be making decisions concerning the appropriateness and form of staff

development programs. Although Ontario, Canada, is the crucible for my observation, I am aware that the ensuing discussion is not unfamiliar to my colleagues in the U.S. and in several European countries as well.

Having lived with fifteen years or so of rapid expansion in the post-secondary sector and in student enrolment our demographer-colleagues in many countries (e.g., Canada, U.S., Sweden) tell us to expect a quick and substantial decline in enrolment and the politicians are telling us to expect less funds for post-secondary education. The phrase "new reality," and its use in the context of higher education has become the vogue expression in Ontario to characterize the current and projected situation of declining enrolments and of shrinking resources available for post-secondary education. In Ontario and beyond, we are faced with a known decline in the number of births. Since most of this decline in births had occurred by 1968, our universities and colleges will suffer enrolment drops even more compressed and disruptive than those which have shaken the elementary schools and which now, in turn, are beginning to throw the secondary schools into disarray. Unless the university participation rates move upward, and unfortunately all signs point to a decline in these rates as well as in the size of the pool of potentially available students, or the universities tap a much larger and new pool (adults in regular and part-time courses, although the competition between the community colleges and the universities will be fierce in the struggle for survival), our university system in Ontario faces the prospect of a drop in total enrolment of between 22,000 and 30,000 by 1996. While there may be a welcome relief, although slight and short-lived, from the steady erosion during the period of 1987-1991 (the number of births was higher in 1969, 1970, and 1971), that period could well be the "eye of the hurricane" since the number of births has dropped again since 1971 and remains low despite the ever increasing number of potential parents who have by now reached their most fertile reproductive period (ages 18 to 32 years). As for the future, one need simply note that those born in such large numbers in 1946 will be 32 years old this year and have not had as many children as anticipated.

It is very likely then, that our universities and colleges will face a lean future for the rest of this century in terms of enrolment (many of our graduates of 1999 have

already been born and we can count them), and all the present signs point to a continued shrinkage into the next century. As an indicator of the financial picture, according to the Council of Ontario Universities,

recent statements by the Treasurer of Ontario predict an annual increase in government support for the universities over the next three to four years in the range of 4.5 per cent to 5.8 per cent. If the lower figure is taken and tuition fees remain frozen, the universities will have to reduce their staff by more than 16 per cent by 1981 to balance their budgets. This would mean 2,000 fewer faculty as well as a proportionate decrease in the number of support staff.

The situation then, in which decisions about problems facing colleges and universities in Ontario (and beyond) will be made, is one of declining enrolments and restrictive funding due to recessionary pressures and severe competition for tax dollars from other sectors. While declining enrolments *and* shrinking resources should not be viewed as causally related, and should be treated as separate phenomena, their coincidence in time is already proving more than a mild threat to the status quo of our post-secondary system in Ontario.

It is apparent to many that the need for the development of effective approaches to problems in higher education has never been more urgent. In the midst of this chaotic scramble for survival, programs for staff development, instructional development, and institutional renewal are in a most unusual situation. While some people feel that many of the difficult problems created by this "new reality" would be served well by these programs, support for them--moral and financial--may be difficult to sustain.

SOME OF THE ISSUES

I would like to review briefly some of the residual issues of this new reality.

In specific terms, what should the goals of our post-secondary system be? A simple rather obvious question for most of us, but can we answer it clearly enough to aid us in sound institutional planning as well as provide direction

for staff development. Our Higher Education Group at The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education began conducting a Goals Analysis Project in order to determine the various ways in which universities communicate within the institution, and to others, their goals and intentions concerning the allocation of resources to accomplish specific teaching, research, and community related outcomes. Obviously, we were interested in more than the "motherhood" statements which take up space in university calendars. In order to really understand institutional goals one must analyze in detail annual reports of departments and faculties and study carefully the decisions of budget/planning committees. Of special concern to us is the discrepancy and/or congruence between stated goals and appropriation of resources for those goals.

While analyzing goals will enable us to judge in a more realistic manner *where* institutions are moving, it does not, of course, shed any light on where they *should* be moving. For example, some observers believe that community colleges are becoming more like universities, universities are becoming more like community colleges, and everyone seems to be interested in the adult learners market. Have all of our various institutions including universities, community colleges, and even secondary schools become so general in nature, so unselective, so universal in capacity and genuine interest that we are capable of being all things to all people in order to survive? Meaningful survival of our institutions depends on doing what we do well and those of us who work in a particular college or university can do more for that institution by systematically readdressing and reaffirming our respective "raison d'etre" than anything else. Surely the renewed interest in curriculum, in particular liberal or general education (e.g., Harvard Core Curriculum) is a result of this re-examination process.

This leads us to a related question. *Once articulated, how can we effectively communicate the goals of higher education, our success in achieving them, and the residual economic, social and cultural benefits to the public?*

Perhaps we *should* ignore the newspaper editorials which imply the diminished role of our universities in society. But should we dismiss the letters to the editor? In point of fact, large numbers of people simply do not understand

the goals and benefits of higher education. Fair enough. As pointed out before, we must first do a better job of this ourselves. But the public does not understand, even in general terms, the true nature of our universities.

With inflation increasingly burdening the average citizen and more easily understood programs dealing with health and social welfare requiring tax dollars, public support for the less tangible benefits of higher education has diminished. The disturbing thing is that a much larger percentage of that public has become "consumers" of higher education than twenty years ago. How do *they* feel about the real benefits of higher education? How well have we articulated to our university students the goals of a liberal education? How well have we provided that education? How well have we communicated to our university undergraduate students the university as a research setting? In my view, the answer to the public relations question lies primarily within our own curriculum, our methods of teaching, and generally, the problem of clarifying for future citizens the idea of the university or the nature of a particular college. Hiring public relations specialists to counteract and/or make use of the media will never achieve the power of the personal experience to be gained by those who attend our institutions.

Without discussing them here, I believe our institutions will need the following questions as well:

> *How can we make effective decisions about institutional goals, staffing (both faculty and support staff), programs, and finance during a period of restraint?*
>
> *How can we effectively retrain and reallocate redundant academic staff for newly identified needs within and outside of the post-secondary system?*
>
> *How can we develop alternative cost-effective instructional methods?*
>
> *How can we develop and implement new and sound formulae for financing higher education in a period of declining enrolment and fiscal restraint?*

How do we deal with the effects of not being able to hire new members of staff? (This is known as the aging professoriate problem.)

How will we adapt to the needs of the adult learners who are expected to represent an increasingly larger percentage of our regular undergraduate programs?

What are the implications of having presidents who serve shorter terms?

What skills do administrators need to deal with the problems we are likely to face in the 1980s? How can selection and/or staff development facilitate the presence of these skills in our leaders?

Are the problems created by declining enrolment and fiscal stringencies well-served by the same institutional structures that were designed to solve problems created by the period of expansion?

How will the academic traditions we seek to protect (e.g., academic freedom, institutional autonomy) affect our ability to deal with the issues of the 1980s?

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AS SAVIOUR

Enough said about the "new reality" and related issues and problems. Where does staff development fit into the scheme of things? What can educational development programs do to solve some of the problems we face?

Before directly answering these questions, I would like to extend my earlier comments by identifying a few biases I have with respect to educational development programs "I have known." First of all, I *do not* believe that instructional or staff development is equivalent to any specific innovation (e.g., Modules, CAI, PSI, small groups. . .). All too often, the implementation of an innovation, doing something "radically different," is *equal* to instructional development rather than merely being an example of it. There are a few problems with this way of looking at things. For example, instructional development, broadly defined, refers to any activity, change in policy, etc., the purpose

of which is the identification and solution of instructional problems, increasing student learning and enjoyment of that learning, or *maintaining* an already effective teaching-learning system, and, as Hans Jalling points out (Chapter 2), staff development can be much more broadly defined than simply training for staff. If instructional development is defined too narrowly (e.g., by the way funds are allocated, decisions made, committee membership filled) those not involved in the "narrow" activities might not participate in the development enterprise on campus.

Occasionally, the very visible innovations are poorly done and instructional development is guilty by association. People might feel that it is "wasteful window-dressing" rather than seeing a particular example as "just a bad case." The same situation often holds true for staff development programs.

Secondly, staff development or instructional development *is not equivalent* to attendance at seminars, workshops, and institutes. Real development as operationalized by the learning and use of a new skill or the reorganization of an instructional system takes place *after* or *between* the workshops and seminars and in some cases in spite of, or in lieu of, these formal experiences. How development can take place in settings which involve collaborative efforts has been ably described by Judith Riley (Chapter 7).

How effective are these experiences in fostering new ideas, skills, and attitudes? I have been involved in about 200 of these types of programs and in my opinion they can be excellent in this regard. But what happens when staff development week is over? Re-entry into the college or university environment often provides a contrary and negative effect, sometimes neutral, and rarely facilitating with respect to the fresh insights obtained during a workshop on teaching or administration. Follow-up activities are especially important for the participants, as John Cowan has emphasized (Chapter 13). If we take a look at the clinical research or training research journals, we quickly learn that the development of many skills, techniques, and knowledge in general, is as much (or more in some cases) a function of the post-learning environment than the learning or training setting.

What we are talking about then is the larger context or environment in which staff and instructional development programs take place. How effective is this environment in facilitating the *maintenance* of a new skill or encouraging the implementation of an innovation? It is all too obvious that post-workshop occurrences such as release time, seed money for projects, merit increases, promotions, and peer support for effective developmental activity are crucial and many of these things will be dependent upon the attitudes and skills of others in the organization.

What then does all of this mean with respect to the question I posed about the usefulness of staff and instructional development programs in solving problems created by the new reality? Absolutely nothing. . .unless we take seriously that third dimension--organizational development. As we know, organizational development deals with the larger context in which we as teachers or administrators work --that pre- and post-workshop environment to which I was referring. Of concern here are problems related to organizational structure, institutional goals and priorities, departmental goals and priorities and their relationship to the institutional goals and priorities, institutional reward systems, decision-making strategies of administrators, program evaluation, curriculum development, and the like. Per Lauvås has described the problem in instituting a staff development program in an institutional context that is not necessarily favorable to developmental effort (Chapter 4). If we want an effective program for individual and institutional renewal, if we want a system for creatively and effectively addressing the issues we face, we are really talking about Educational Development in which programs dealing with staff interests and needs, programs related to the myriad of problems which are indigenous to organizations are actively interrelated.

This interrelatedness is crucial. Many of the staff and instructional development programs have suffered because they have become too "departmentalized." Those institutions which have a variety of unconnected educational development resources (i.e., an instructional development centre, a separate staff development program, a media centre) are likely to encourage solution-selling rather than appropriately designed solutions for individual, program, and institutional needs. Because of the shrinking resources, money for these programs will become scarce.

It is fine for us to say that more money is necessary but when it comes down to a choice between non-rehiring twenty academics or cutting a staff development program, I suspect we all know where the axe will fall.

If we take George Geis' discussion concerning "front-end analysis" in the broadest sense, the needs analysis we do in planning our programs will be based not only on what teachers and administrators say they need but on the needs of the organization as well. A careful problem-explication process in which we consider our colleagues in relation to institutional goals and priorities (and vice versa) is likely to determine the most effective way to make use of limited resources from year to year.

PUTTING OUR OWN HOUSE IN ORDER

Those of us in the business of one or all of the sub-groups of educational development, spend a great deal of time scapegoating others in our organization. We leave a meeting with a teacher-client and say "wow, why doesn't that guy accept my advice about adapting to the needs of his students. He sure is insecure. . ." without taking our own advise in dealing with him. We leave annual budget meetings shocked by the administration's decision to cut back our programs saying "they simply don't understand our value." Why don't we do a better job applying to our own work, the goal setting, evaluation, and communications skills we preach to our clients.

Some of us spend a great deal of time praising the virtues of a rigorous research-oriented approach to staff and instructional development while others are content with a pure service concept. Surely we are mature enough at this point to realize that credibility and effectiveness will be determined by an appropriate match between resources and needs. For example, some teachers or administrators are likely to continue to demand the attention of a staff developer who has a scholarly reputation in his/her own right. By the same token, others will continue to respond to a non-academic service person for a variety of reasons. John Sharpham presents a third alternative, the use of staff members themselves in staff development activities (Chapter 9).

It seems to me that the most successful programs are those which take seriously the matching model approach and spend more time analyzing the needs of the client and the organization and less time justifying *the* approach. The most successful consultants, in my opinion, are those who can and will play several roles with clients (e.g., "expert research-oriented consultant," "information officer," research assistant") or arrange for someone else to take over, once the appropriate specialist role is identified ("diagnostic/referral role"). We have much to learn from one another and the process will be aided a bit if we start bragging (amongst ourselves) about our problems as well as our prowess. An examination of some of our basic assumptions about educational/professional/staff development, as Susan Sayer has done (Chapter 3), would be more than a little useful.

At the same time, many of us in the field of educational development have been made to feel a bit insecure over the past decade. We are told to demonstrate our service worth to our institutions and to spend less time presenting research findings and consulting off-campus; then the time for promotion comes and they apply the traditional research/publication criteria to our work.

It is my feeling that many people in the fields of staff, instructional, and organizational development are excellent at identifying, clarifying and solving complex human problems. But I do not believe that we should wait around to see if the decision makers will come to see the light. It may sound a bit negative but we must be more proactive in identifying those things which worry our colleague teachers and administrators. Our programs must take into consideration the problems facing our institutions and accordingly, the value of our work will rise in direct proportion to our ability to please others in important ways. The pressures of the 1980s will not afford us the luxury of putting on too many workshops and seminars on topics that we think are useful for their "own sake." As both Robin Buchan (Chapter 12) and John Cowan (Chapter 13) argue, to ignore the perceptions of those persons whom development programs must serve is to invite failure.

We must derive some security out of the self-knowledge concerning our problem-solving capabilities and demonstrate

this to others: for example 1) If a curriculum committee is set up in the Arts and Science faculty, why not send a set of articles reviewing the work of other similar committees with a note, "Is this type of information helpful?" 2) If the institution faces an academic staff redundancy of 20% over the next five years, why not send the president a summary of the various ways in which others are dealing with similar problems? "Is this type of information useful?"

It is true that many of us operate under the assumption that we are not to be concerned with curriculum matters, institutional research and the like because we were "set up" to do quite different things. Times have changed. If we don't provide widespread support actively for many of these new concerns, who will?

As we enter the 1980s, we must put our own house in order, and we should reexamine our own role in the institution. In my opinion, this should be a low key process and we should *demonstrate* any changes in role inductively (e.g., by doing it when we sense that others want us to or will permit us to) rather than deductively or formally (e.g., a Senate Committee.)

PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER. . .

Let me summarize by specifiying what I believe are a few of the essential characteristics of an effective educational development program.

1. *Programs for staff development, instructional development, organizational development, student services, media services, continuing education, institutional research, and academic planning should be part of the same administrative structure (e.g., Committee on Educational Development chaired by chief academic officer of the institution).*

2. *Allocation of resources for various educational development activities should flow from systematic assessments of staff needs and institutional goals and priorities.* (Eva Falk-Nilsson, Chapter 5, discusses one approach to staff development based upon such an assessment.)

3. *An ongoing evaluation plan which monitors the effectiveness of the educational development program, at both the individual and institutional levels, is essential.* (Dent Rhodes, Chapter 14, outlines the basic requirements such an evaluation plan must fulfill.)

4. *The program must either engage in research on questions for which we have no sound data base* or *take advantage of the work of others who are pursuing appropriate lines of research.* (Arthur Rothman, Chapter 6, shows how a data-based program has been operationalized.)

5. *An effective program should invest more resources in activities which assist in identifying and clarifying individual needs or institutional problems and less resources on single innovations which have a high overhead to maintain.*

In addition to these rather obvious points, there are a few additional ones which are equally self-evident. We must in the name of "individual differences" *provide variety or alternative paths of renewal for our colleague-clients.* For years, I have noticed that whatever seminars or workshope are held (e.g., goal setting, running seminars, student motivation, self-instruction, evaluation of students, instructional evaluation. . .) we only seem to attract, at most, about 25% of the academic community and, at worst, about 10%. Recent work by Geis and Smith (1979) and others seems to suggest that many of our non-clients just do not feel they need what we do. For those who want a more scholarly, less skill-oriented approach, we should be willing to provide seminars or colloquia on "Curriculum Development" or "Evaluating a Liberal Education" or "The Ideas of the University" or whatever. There are numerous ways of beginning a dialogue on teaching and learning and if some of our colleagues would rather begin by reading Clark Kerr, Cardinal Newman, Karl Jaspers, or Henry Rasovsky (Harvard Core Curriculum) then all the better. We might even learn something ourselves in the process. Don't change agents need renewing?

In addition, we should provide *staff development opportunities for all members of our organizations.* For example,

the most overlooked individuals seem to be the administrative assistants in our institutions. Presidents and deans come and go (I believe they'll be going earlier during the 80s) and their assistants (in an important sense the civil servants) provide continuity and provide an incredibly valuable "institutional memory" for their organizations. I therefore believe that these individuals will become more important to the institutions, and programs designed to broaden their knowledge will be, in my opinion, well-received.* Both Harriet Greenaway (Chapter 10) and Robert Scott (Chapter 11) describe various approaches to development for administrative personnel. Though administrative structure may differ, the basic needs appear similar.

Our institutions desperately need educational development programs which are *flexible* (i.e., quick to adapt to new needs and quick to discard techniques and activities which are proven ineffective). We need programs which are internally consistent in which all the component elements interrelate. Our institutions have been suffering from a bad case of "hardening of the categories" with everybody doing his own thing to survive. "Partnership problem-solving" in higher education has never been as crucial as it is today. If our leaders bury their heads and define long-term planning in terms of next year's budget and "who is going to teach the introductory course?" our institutions will all be in trouble.

The problems of the 1980s--the aging professoriate, the need to retrain redundant staff, setting and achieving appropriate institutional goals in a time of restraint, designing cost-effective instructional methods, ensuring the integrity of curriculum--are all solvable if we engage in solid educational development.

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*A new "Certificate Program in Higher Education" has been designed by the Higher Education Group of The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education for administrative assistants in colleges and universities. The Program is intended primarily for individuals occupying administrative positions below the level of middle and upper management, and either inadmissible to degree programs or unable to devote the time required to complete a degree program.

Those who facilitate staff and instructional development without due consideration and extensive knowledge of the institution's goals and priorities and the issues ahead in the 1980s, will be acting like the recreation director on the Titanic. For my part, I would like to assist the Captain in steering a clear course in addition to keeping the passengers and crew happy and the staterooms in order.

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